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# ANALYTICAL AND COMPUTER METHODS IN FOUNDATION ENGINEERING

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This textbook has been written to provide practicing soil engineers, foundation engineers, and engineering students with the finite-element and other computer-oriented computational tools to solve most soil-structure interaction problems encountered in practice. Computer-program listings are included for each major analytical procedure introduced so that the user can either punch a card deck or obtain a set of card decks from the author to immediately begin problem solving.

The book uses both fps (U.S. units) and the metric system: where metric units are given, the SI values are used unless common usage dictates otherwise. At least one problem in each problem-oriented chapter is solved using SI units. The computer programs are written in the widely used FORTRAN IV language and can be used for either system of units.

Chapter 2 includes enough material on soil mechanics to permit the text to be self-sufficient and to provide a ready source of soil-engineering information for the types of problems considered in this book.

Chapter 3 considers reinforced-concrete design as applicable to foundation engineering using the ACI 318-71 Code and extends the coverage to include spread and combined footings. This coverage makes it possible for this text to be used in a first

course in foundation engineering. For the practicing engineer this chapter provides a handy reference.

Chapter 5 presents new methods of analysis for the beam on an elastic foundation and ring foundations developed by the author. The method for beams on elastic foundations is critically evaluated with test data and is compared with conventional design procedures. Chapter 7 includes coverage of mat foundations and eccentrically loaded footings. The finite-difference and finite-element methods of solution are used in the analysis of mat foundations. New material is included in this chapter on the analysis of footings with large eccentricity (including footing weight), footings with notches, and a simple finite-element method to solve irregular-shaped mat foundations. The author compares these methods with conventional practice.

Chapters 9 and 10 present new finite-element procedures developed by the author for lateral-pile and sheet-pile analysis and compare the analytical procedure with field and/or laboratory test results.

Chapter 11 contains the author's latest version of the wave equation together with pile-load test comparisons.

Chapter 12 contains a new method of static pile-stress analysis using a finite-element procedure developed by the author. This method is also compared to field pile-load test results. The method can include piles with batter, partial embedment, and the effect of lateral deformation  $(P\Delta)$  on bending stresses induced in the pile.

Chapter 13 contains the recently developed matrix analysis of three-dimensional pile groups, and Chapter 14 includes the Bishop method of slope stability, modified by the author to compute effective stresses directly and to include a very large number of different soil properties within the assumed failure arc.

This text uses matrix notation where applicable, but the notation has been kept as simple as possible and is used consistently throughout the text. This feature is of considerable value especially to those with limited familiarity with the method.

Computer-program operations, input data, data units, and limitations are outlined prior to the program listing, and at least one set of data-card entries for a fps and a metric problem are completely listed in the proper sequence for use in the computer program. This feature gives the user immediate access to the programs with a minimum of uncertainty. Most chapters show a complete or slightly edited computer output for the problems solved. This program-documentation technique has been used successfully by the author both in the classroom and in correspondence with other engineers.

The anticipated method of classroom instruction is that the instructor will obtain the card decks from the author, load them on the computer, and assign problems to the class. This allows the student to observe the effect of varying soil and/or structure parameters rather than spending his limited time working a single (in many cases) complex problem by hand by outmoded and often highly approximate methods.

Furnishing the program listings also enables the student to spend his time profitably on problem solving rather than on program writing and debugging operations.

The practicing engineer will find this text easy to read, and the notation is such that comprehension develops quickly even if the reader is not familiar with matrix operations. The program listings and deck availability from the author enable nearly every design office to have access to highly efficient and powerful design tools for analyzing this class of problem. Even more important is that the foundation engineer can vary the applicable design parameters to achieve the best and most economical design (and in many cases with a much higher level of confidence).

The author wishes to express sincere appreciation to Marian J. Frobish, of the Bradley University Computer Center, for providing guidance in developing and helping to debug the included computer programs. Appreciation is also expressed to Dr. H. Y. Fang of Lehigh University and those others who reviewed the manuscript.

Especial thanks are due to my wife, Faye, for typing the entire manuscript several times and catching many errors. Without her cooperation and assistance it is doubtful if this text would have ever been completed.

JOSEPH E. BOWLES

## COMPUTER PROGRAMMING USING FORTRAN IV

#### 1-1 ELEMENTS OF WRITING COMPUTER PROGRAMS

A computer program will be defined as a means of communicating a sequence of instructions to enable the computer to perform a desired set of operations. The discussion of this text limits these operations to various mathematical operations such as multiplying, dividing, raising the power, extracting roots, and obtaining trigonometric functions.

As the reader is assumed to have had a course in computer programming, this chapter is primarily a rapid reference source on computer methods. For a more complete discussion and other techniques, see Bradley (1969) and IBM (1968).

## 1-2 TYPES OF COMPUTATIONAL VARIABLES AVAILABLE

Computers use two types of numbers and variable identification in arithmetic computations; the variables are always identified alpha-numerically.

1 Fixed-point numbers, or integers, where no decimal point is used, for example,

1, 5, 6, 8, 200

2 Floating-point, or numbers with a decimal point, for example, 1.00, 1.41416, 3.1416, 500., 500.00, 500.001

Alpha-numeric identification means using alphabet letters as a prefix with or without numerals to provide variable identity. For example,

Α -	SLOPE2	STRESS	<b>INERTA</b>
K	CAT	<b>SMIN</b>	MODEL
ABLE	PHI1	MOM	G4

Fixed-point variables are always automatically identified by the computer as

or prefixed with these letters. Thus, K, MOM, INERTA, MODEL of the preceding paragraph refer to fixed-point numbers.

Floating-point variables use the remainder of the alphabet and the dollar symbol \$, thus

## A, ABLE, CAT, STRESS, \$MIN

would be floating-point variables. It should be evident from the manner of writing variables that the programmer has considerable latitude in variable usage and will attempt to use the variable names for identification where possible. Section 1-5 puts a length limitation on a variable of six alpha-numeric characters.

Fixed- and floating-point numbers can be interchanged as part of the program specification instructions (see Sec. 1-8).

One should generally not intermix fixed and floating variables in any given computation although some computers do allow this. Identifying a floating-point operation (or number) or a fixed-point computation as an integer variable always effects a truncation of the decimal *down* to the nearest integer.

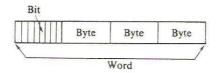
## 1-3 SINGLE AND DOUBLE PRECISION

Ordinarily IBM computers perform arithmetical operations in *single precision*. Single-precision computations use a maximum of seven digits (filled out with zeros or truncated if more than seven digits) plus space for the sign and decimal point, for example,

Specifying double-precision computations allows the use of a maximum of 16 digits with sign and decimal point, for example,

-56789.83542155774

The single-precision number is a word consisting of two half-words, a half-word being 2 bytes. A byte consists of 8 bits. The byte is used to describe the computer's



core capacity in blocks of 210 bytes. To condense discussion, capacity of computer memory is described in terms of K, where  $K = 2^{10}$  bytes. A computer of core memory size

$$16 \text{ K} = 16(1,024) = 16,384 \text{ bytes}$$

and

$$128 \text{ K} = 131,072 \text{ bytes}$$

A certain number of bytes are associated with the computer bookkeeping. For the 360/40 system with 128 K core storage this is about 14 K. Thus, in this system for all practical purposes the programmer would be able to use 114 K/4  $\approx$  29,000 words (or seven-digit numbers) in a computer with this core capacity. One consumes computer core at a very rapid rate using double-precision numbers, since in all double precision the capacity is about 14,500 words. One should not arbitrarily assume that double precision provides more computational accuracy. Actually matrices of size  $60 \times 60$  can be inverted in single precision on the IBM 360 with little loss of accuracy. In fact a 90  $\times$  90 can be inverted in single precision to the precision of the input data.

## 1-4 ADDITION, SUBTRACTION, MULTIPLICATION, DIVISION (+, -, \*, /)

Consider three variables, A, B, C. To add A and B one may write in computer language (FORTRAN IV) that the sum is a new variable D as follows:

$$D = A + B$$

To subtract C from A and from D, introduce new variables F and G:

$$F = A - C$$

$$G = D - C$$

To multiply A and B and the product AB = H by F

$$H = A * B$$

$$P = A * B * F$$

OL

$$P = H * F$$

Obviously in this last case an error message would result if P = H \* F were not preceded by H = A \* B, as H does not have an identity until the product operation has been performed.

To divide F by P

$$Q = F/P$$
 or  $Q = (A - C)/P$ 

and not Q = A - C/P since this would simply subtract the value of C/P from A, which was not wanted.

Note also that if A = 20., C = 4., and P = 2.,

$$(A - C)/P = (20. - 4.)/2. = 8.0$$

Further

$$(A - C)/P + 1.0 = 9.0$$

but

$$(A - C)/(P + 1.0) = 5.333$$

## 1-5 LENGTH OF VARIABLE; SUBSCRIPTED VARIABLES

No variable can be more than six alpha-numeric characters long, exclusive of subscript identification. For example,

AA3 3 characters long

ALINE 5 characters long

ASLOPE 6 characters (maximum length)
ASLOP1 6 characters (maximum length)
ASLOPE(I,J) 6 characters (maximum length)

ELASTIC incorrect (7 characters long)

Variables may be subscripted so that they can be stored for later computational use or written in a particular output form (FORMAT). All subscripted variables must be DIMENSIONED, preferably at the beginning of the program (see Sec. 1-9).

The dimension specification (statement) may be bigger than the largest value of the subscript, or equal to it, but never smaller. The DIMENSION statement is an instruction to the computer to reserve or allocate in core the number of spaces specified on the DIMENSION statement. Variables may be subscripted single, double, or more. Examples:

A(I)Single; A(20) reserves 20 spaces

A(I,J)Double; A(20,20) reserves 400 spaces

A(I,J,K) Triple; A(2,8,12) reserves 192 spaces

The spaces reserved are in single precision. If A(20) referred to a double-precision variable, 40 spaces would be effectively allocated.

The subscript counters (I,J), or whatever other variables are used, must be specified as fixed-point.

## 1-6 EXPONENTS AND ROOTS

To raise a variable to any power (subject, of course, to computer limitations of approximately  $\pm 75$  on the IBM 360) consider the following:

Given: A, B, C

 $D = A^2$   $F = AB^3$   $G = A(BC)^4$   $D = (ABC)^2$ Find:

Solution: D = A\*\*2 G = A\*(B\*C)\*\*4F = A\*B\*\*3 D = (A\*B\*C)\*\*2

Note, however, that  $A*B*C**2 = ABC^2$ .

To obtain  $\sqrt{A}$ ,  $\sqrt[3]{C}$ ,  $\sqrt[4]{D}$ , and  $\sqrt{A^2 + B^2}$ , one may introduce variables and solve as follows:

G = A\*\*.5 
$$\sqrt{A}$$
 Q = (A\*\*2 + B\*\*2)\*\*.5  
H = C\*\*.333  $\sqrt[3]{C}$   
P = D\*\*.25  $\sqrt[4]{D}$ 

For the first and last root extraction, one may use a computer-furnished software system subroutine:

G = SQRT(A)

Q = SQRT(A\*\*2 + B\*\*2)

Q = DSQRT(A\*\*2 + B\*\*2)

where the prefix "D" in DSQRT is for double precision. The argument  $A^2 + B^2$  cannot be negative for this particular subroutine, which may happen, for example, in solving roots of a quadratic equation of the general form

$$X = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

Two alternate subroutines (CSQRT and DCSQRT) are used if the square root is negative or complex.

One may use either fixed or floating values of exponents in raising to powers; conversely, for all root operations it is necessary to use floating point.

To raise e to any exponent or obtain logarithms of numbers, computer software routines can be used.

$$e^{X} = EXP(X)$$
 or  $DEXP(X)$  in double precision

$$log X = ALOG10(X) or DLOG10(X)$$

$$ln X = ALOG(X) or DLOG(X)$$

## 1-7 TRIGONOMETRIC AND HYPERBOLIC FUNCTIONS

Trigonometric functions are obtained as computer software subroutines using:

Function	Computer single-precision subroutine
Sine X	SIN (X)
Cosine Y	COS (Y)
Tangent Z	TAN (Z)
Cotangent A	COTAN (A)
Arc sine B	ARSIN (B)
Arc cosine C	ARCOS (C)
Arc tangent D	ATAN (D)
Hyperbolic sine F	SINH (F)
Hyperbolic cosine G	COSH (G)
Hyperbolic tangent P	TANH (P)

For double precision, prefix the subroutine name with a D; for example, DSIN(X), DTANH(P).

The arguments used in the trigonometric subroutines must be in radians; angles computed from the inverse functions will be in radians. An angle is converted to radians as follows:

Angle in radians = 
$$\frac{\text{angle in degrees}}{57.2957795131}$$

$$1 \text{ rad} = \frac{180}{3.1415926535}$$

## 1-8 SIGNS; FINDING LARGEST OR SMALLEST VALUE IN AN ARRAY

Signs can be converted by either inserting a sign or multiplying by -1.0.

If a value is being compared (or tested) and it is not known in advance what the sign will be, one may use the absolute value as

depending on single- or double-precision (DABS) usage. In double precision both the argument and the number being compared must be of similar precision. Using this subroutine effectively converts any value or values in an array used as the argument to plus sign.

To find the largest or smallest value of a variable in a group or array, one may use still another computer software subroutine. The largest value of a list of values X, Y, Z, W, U, V is

```
AMAX0 (I,J,K,L,M,M1)
AMAX1 (-X,Y,-Z,W,A,...)*
MAX0 (...,F,G)
MAX1
       (-\ldots A,B,C,\ldots)
DMAX1 (A1,B1,C2,F2,...)
```

using AMAX for the absolute maximum value when signs are included and MAXwhen signs are not to be considered. Further, the zero (0) or (1) identifies whether the variables are fixed or floating point (AMAX1 and MAX1 are floating point). One may write a series of statements to do this as an alternative method.

The smallest value of a list or array can be obtained using

```
AMINO (N,N1,N2,NN)
AMIN1(X,Y,Z,A)
MIN<sub>0</sub>
        (N, N1, N2, ...)
MIN1
        (A,B,C,\ldots)
DMIN1 (A,B,C,...)
```

<sup>\*</sup> See the computer program in Chap. 5.

where A, 0, and 1 are for absolute minimum, fixed point, or floating point, respectively. In both maximum- and minimum-value subroutines the D prefix is double precision, and if the argument is not double precision, an error message will be displayed.

## 1-9 COMPUTER TECHNIQUES

This section summarizes a few of the many techniques the author has found advisable to have readily accessible when writing computer programs.

Referring to the program listing of Chap. 5, it can be said that any computer program consists of the following:

- a SPECIFICATION statements listed in order and in proper sequence (observing that not all of the following five types of statements may be required in a given program) as follows:
  - 1 DIMENSION TITLE (20), X(40,2), Y(40,40), E(30,30)
  - 2 COMMON D,W
  - 3 EQUIVALENCE (E(1,1), A(1,1))
  - 4 IMPLICIT INTEGER (A,BX) (see Sec. 1-12)
    IMPLICIT REAL\*4 (N2,LK)
    IMPLICIT REAL\*8 (N3,LKK)
    INTEGER C, CX
  - 5 DOUBLE PRECISION X, Y
- b ARITHMETIC statements (the program) interspersed with:
  - 1 READ (1,200)K, Z1, Z2, D (input statements)
  - 2 WRITE (3,1008) Z1, Z2, D (output statements)
  - 3 FORMAT statements (input or output specifications)

The READ statements allow input of data for computations according to the specifications contained in the

and the WRITE statement causes the variable identified (for example, Z1, Z2, and D) to be written according to the specifications contained in

Output is very important for ease of interpretation. The apostrophe is a very useful device in output. At the left parenthesis if it encloses a 1 ('1'), it starts a new page; enclosing a zero ('0') skips two lines, and leaving a blank (' ') skips one line.

Apostrophes are used elsewhere within the parentheses to enclose anything the printer is to write out. If a word contains an apostrophe, e.g., don't, it is written 'DON"T'; i.e., double interior apostrophes are used. Specifically referring to the input/output (I/O) of the example just given earlier under ARITHMETIC statements, the statement

## 200 FORMAT (15,3F10.4)

says that K is a fixed-point number inserted in the first five data-card spaces and right-justified. A one-digit number uses the fifth space; two-digit, uses the fourth and fifth spaces, etc. The next 30 card spaces are used at 10 spaces each for the three floating-point variables Z1, Z2, D. The decimal point does not have to be used, but if it is not included, the right four spaces are automatically pointed off by the computer to satisfy the F10.4 field specification.

Now assume

Z1 = 200.02

Z2 = 25.0

D = 3255.6

The output specification

1008 FORMAT ('1', //, T5, 'Z1 = ',...)

is as follows:

'1', sets new page.

//, advances the paper two spaces from page top for first printed line.

T5, starts the printer to typing Z1 = in fifth column and is of general form Tw.

'Z1 = 'F6.3 causes to be written as shown: Z1 = 200.02.

5X, skips five spaces to start next printing on the same line and is of general form wX. Note that the computer will add zeros in the following formats.

'Z2 = ' F6.3 causes Z2 =  $\underline{25.00}$ , as shown on same line as Z1.

5X, skips five spaces.

'D = 'F8.2, 'LB', writes "D = 3255.60 LB" as shown. Note that the skip within the 'LB' is also written.

// advances the paper two spaces for next printed output.

The commas are to set off various commands and block information in sequence. Other methods, including H (or Hollerith field specifications) and an elaboration of the T specifications, can be used to put output into almost any form. The use of Tw and wX as shown here, together with apostrophes, will take care of most output FORMATS. For this reason it seems unnecessary to elaborate on alternative field specifications. Now consider

WRITE (3,XYZ)X
XYZ FORMAT ('1', T5, 'THE X VALUES ARE', //, T5, F10.4)

Again the first material inside the parenthesis is '1' followed by a comma. Since the heading is to start in the fifth type space from the left margin, we have T5. The // advances the paper two spaces, and F10.4 is the maximum size of X to be written, one number to a line, starting no closer to the edge than five spaces and terminating in the fifteenth column. An alternate output format where a page start has already been made is as follows. If we want to write the footing

Length = EL

Width = B

Modulus of elasticity = EC

with units identified and the modulus of elasticity on the second line, this is done as

\* WRITE (3,104) EL, B, EC

104 FORMAT (//,T5, 'FTG LENGTH = ', F6.2, ' FT', 5X, 'FTG WIDTH = ', F6.2, ' FT', /, T5, 'MODULUS OF ELAS = ', F8.2, ' KSF', //)

interpreted as follows:

//, skips two lines.

T5, starts F of "FTG" in fifth column.

'FTG LENGTH = ' is printed since it is enclosed in apostrophes.

F6.2 is the maximum size of footing length which can be written with two decimals (999.99); and no sign is included since the footing length is not likely to be negative.

FT', writes units skipping the space enclosed within the apostrophes.

5X, skips five spaces to start next output information.

'FTG WIDTH = ', F6.2, which is written with a maximum of field width of six spaces.

F6.2, as before, with units of 'FT'.

,/, advances the printer one line.

T5, starts writing of 'MODULUS OF ELAS = ' in column 5.

F8.2, uses a maximum of eight digits with two decimals since E is usually larger than the footing length.

'KSF', is units of E with a space left before K of KSF so that number and units are separated by a space.

//) advances the printer two lines in anticipation of the next data to be written.

Sometimes, especially if the digit field size is not known in advance, it is desirable to specify the output in E-FORMAT; as an example,

xxxxx FORMAT (..., aEw.d,...)

where a = integer representing desired number of repeats of output

E = specification of output in single precision with exponent

w =integer specifying number of columns to be used

d = number of columns reserved for the decimal (or fraction)

Value	FORMAT	Printed
-0.004	E10.3	-0.400E - 02
250.2	E10.2	0.25E + 03

## 1-10 DATA CARDS

## COMMENT Cards

Put C in column 1 and any desired alpha-numeric information in the remaining 79 spaces. Continuation cards may be used, but put a C in column 1 of each.

#### SPECIFICATION Cards

They are started in column 7 and can be used to include column 72.

#### Arithmetic, Input, Output, Format

Column	Information
1–5	Statement numbers
6	Blank unless a continuation; if continuation, put any alphabetic or numeric symbol, but this column must be filled
7-72	Statement
73-80	Data-processing identification (if desired)

#### Data Cards (Input or Output)

Spaces 1 to 80 may be used according to format specifications; for example,

3I5 uses first 15 spaces.

2I5, 6F10.4 uses 70 spaces with eight data entries; the first two are fixed-point. 8F10.4 uses all 80 spaces with eight data entries, each 10 spaces wide.

#### 1-11 ALPHA-NUMERIC DATA

Occasionally it is desired to read (or write) alpha-numeric data into a program. This is done in the computer program displayed in Chap. 7.

This can be accomplished using an A-format specification, which in the general form is

Aw

where w is a positive integer (either 4 or 8) designating the number of characters to be processed. If it is known how many characters are required (say it is desired to read and write the following, identified as K,

$$K = 4X + 6Y$$

which is 11 characters including blanks, =, +, etc.), then

READ (1,1000)TITLE

1000 FORMAT (3A4)

WRITE (3,1001)TITLE

1001 FORMAT (3A4)

Several of the programs included in this text use FORMAT (20A4), which reserves one data card of alpha-numeric data since  $4 \times 20 = 80$  character spaces are reserved.

A DIMENSION statement must be included with this mode of output communication, otherwise only one character in the data will be saved for output. This statement might read

**DIMENSION TITLE(20)** 

If 20 does not reserve enough space, of course, not all the alpha-numeric data will be stored.

#### 1-12 FIXED POINT TO FLOATING POINT

When it is desirable to use certain of the alphabet segment normally reserved to identify fixed-point variables (I through N) as floating-point variables (say M2, N), one may use

REAL\*4 M2, N 4 converts to single precision

REAL\*8 M2, N 8 converts to double precision

or

DOUBLE PRECISION M2, N

From this it follows that DOUBLE PRECISION and REAL\*8 do the same thing and are interchangeable.

To convert any variable beginning with, say, M, J, and L to floating point, one may use

## IMPLICIT REAL\*4 (M,J,L)

As an example, if variables MCOL, J, LCM are used in the program, they will be used as floating-point variables in single precision. If REAL\*8 had been used, double precision would have resulted.

## Floating Point to Fixed Point

To convert parts of the alphabet to fixed point other than (I through N), one may use

to convert any variable beginning with A or G (as A, AC, ABLE, G1, GMX, G) to fixed point. To convert a block of the alphabet, say A through G, to fixed point, use

To convert only certain variables use

This converts only variables identified with A, B, and RAT to fixed point.

#### 1-13 IF STATEMENTS

There are two types, logical and computed.

## Logical IF Statements

IF(A.GE.B)X = Y IF(A.LT.B)L = 4	states that	if $A \ge B$ , then $X = Y$ if $A < B$ , then $L = 4$
IF(A.EQ.C)W = 0.0 IF(A.NE.B)GO TO 7	states that states that	if $A = C$ , then $W = 0$ . if $A \neq B$ , transfer operations to statement labeled 7
IF(A.LE.D)W1 = W2 IF(A.GT.D)Z = 6.	states that states that	if $A \le D$ , then $W1 = W2$ if $A > D$ , then $Z = 6$ .

## 14 ANALYTICAL AND COMPUTER METHODS IN FOUNDATION ENGINEERING

Other program statements may also be used, such as

instead of, for example, Z = 6., L = 4, X = Y.

## Computed IF Statements

They are of the form

$$68 Z = K + 1$$

$$69 AA = B + C/D$$

which states that if A-B is

Operation			
GO	то	67	
GO	TO	68	
GO	TO	69	
	GO GO	GO TO GO TO GO TO	

and the *first* statement following this IF statement must have one of the three control-transfer identification numbers (or a statement number) to avoid an error message.

#### 1-14 GO TO STATEMENTS

There are two types, routine and computed.

## Routine GO TO Statements

When a routine statement like

is encountered, it transfers control to statement numbered 60. Be careful, because if statement number 60 precedes this statement in a program, it can cause the computer to loop indefinitely.

### Computed GO TO Statements

A computed GO TO statement like

GO TO (61, 62, 63,...),LL

sends control to statement

- when LL = 161
- 62 when LL = 2
- when LL = 363

Obviously there must be a means of incrementing the variable named LL (a fixedpoint variable must be used) and a means of returning to this GO TO statement after LL is incremented.

#### 1-15 SUBROUTINES AND DISK STORAGE

A program may use subroutines, e.g.,

SUBROUTINE INVERT

and

SUBROUTINE (B,IX)

which may be used at appropriate locations in the main program with the statements

CALL INVERT

and CALL (W,5) if the variable to be used is SUBROUTINE (B,IX). In this illustration the variables to use in the subroutine are W (for B) and 5 (for IX). In other words, the called subroutine has an array B and the identification IX. When the subroutine is called, all B variables become the W variables of the main program and IX will have the integer value 5.

A program may also use disk work space, a method varying somewhat at different computer centers. Work space is used as required with the typical statement within a DO loop as

WRITE (5) W(I,J)

to put information onto the disk. The statement

REWIND 5

returns the disk locator to the initial point where W(I,J) was begun. The statement

READ (5) 
$$(W(I,J), J = 1, M)$$

will recall the W(I,J) information stored in the disk. Care must be taken to WRITE (5), REWIND 5, and READ (5) in the correct sequence especially, for example, if after using

WRITE (5) 
$$(W(I,J), J = 1, M)$$

one immediately began to write a matrix A(I,J) as

WRITE (5) 
$$(A(I,J), J = 1, N)$$

Data of A(I,J) follow W(I,J). Now if the very next computation involved recalling the A matrix, the statement

would still return the disk to the starting point of W(I,J), not to the start of A(I,J). If REWIND 5 were used just after the end of W(I,J), then A(I,J) would be written over W(I,J). Most computers have more than one work space, for example, 4, 5, 6. If A(I,J) is used prior to W(I,J), it would be better to use

and a sequential problem would not occur since use of A(I,J) would simply require

It is absolutely necessary to WRITE to the disk in the same order that will be used on recall from the disk. For example, if the order of writing is

DO 60 I = 1, L  
60 WRITE (6) (A(I,J), 
$$J = 1$$
, N)

one cannot

but one can

If it is necessary to back up one record, the instruction BACKSPACE is used; for example,

would backspace one record of A(I,K) located on work area 6 on disk or tape. This cannot be used for writing over or redefining records and using the same storage.

The COMMON statement is used to indicate that certain variables are common (the variable identity is used) to more than one program or subroutine. When COMMON statements are used, the order of variables must be maintained. When COMMON statements are used, the program map immediately following the program listing will contain a COMMON BLOCK. An inspection of the COMMON BLOCK of the programs using common variables will indicate whether the common storage area has been properly entered.

For example, COMMON I, J, W in two programs may map as:

	I	J	W
Main program	0	4	8
Subroutine	0	4	8

indicating that the variables are in common. Or if one has

	1	J	W
Main program	0	4	8
Subroutine	0	4	2C

the W variable is not in common (i.e., not in same core location since 2C and 8 are different core storage locations) in the subroutine, and peculiar events would undoubtedly occur when the subroutine started using W since whatever was stored at 2C and not at 8 would be used. One should routinely check the COMMON BLOCK map when using COMMON since an error message may not occur; the first warning is a miserable set of output. It is necessary to dimension COMMON subscripted variables in all common programs the same way.

#### 1-16 CONSERVATION OF COMPUTER CORE

A very useful technique for saving computer storage, especially of matrices, is to scan the program for matrices which are used perhaps once. For example, in a program of interest Y (64,64) is used and inverted, and a matrix W(12,12) is computed. The Y matrix is no longer needed. As a matter of fact, the following sequence of events takes place (see computer program of Sec. 7-6).

Form Y(64,64) maximum size
Invert Y
Form W(I,J) using Y
Form W1(I,J) using W(I,J)
Compute XMX(I,J), XMY(I,J), using W(I,J)
Compute SOILR(I,J), SOILP(I,J), using W1(I,J)

Since SOILR(I,J) and SOILP(I,J) are the same size as XMX(I,J) and XMY(I,J) but do not depend on XMX(I,J) and XMY(I,J), we can compute XMX(I,J) and XMY(I,J), write them as output, then write over these matrices with new matrices, thus using the same core locations. The space reserved for XMX(I,J) and XMY(I,J) will now be used to store SOILR(I,J) and SOILP(I,J). This can be done using the statement

EQUIVALENCE (SOILP(1,1), XMX(1,1)), (SOILR(1,1), XMY(1,1))

to tell the computer this is our intention and that the starting points (1,1) are the same, although since they are the same size, there should be no problem.

What about the gigantic space Y(64,64) going to waste after W(I,J) is obtained? Let us be even cleverer. Since W, W1, XMX, XMY, SOILP, and SOILR all follow Y, we write

EQUIVALENCE (W1(1,1), Y(1,1)), (XMX(1,1), Y(3,17)), (XMY(1,1), Y(7,1))

thus effecting a saving of considerable space. The Y storage will be used as shown in Fig. 1-1. Here it is seen that W1, XMX, and XMY all use 144 spaces. To write 144 spaces into Y will use two and a fraction rows (144/64 = 2.25). Since there is plenty of room, let us start W1 in Y(1,1). Three rows later we start XMX(1,1) in Y(3,17). To save counting, we simply put XMY in Y(7,1), leaving a gap between the end of XMX(12,12) and XMY(1,1) of  $64 \times 7 - 2 \times 144 = 160$  spaces still containing Y(I,J) values.

It should be noted that COMMON is an alternative statement which can be used to accomplish this superposition of storage. The COMMON statement also

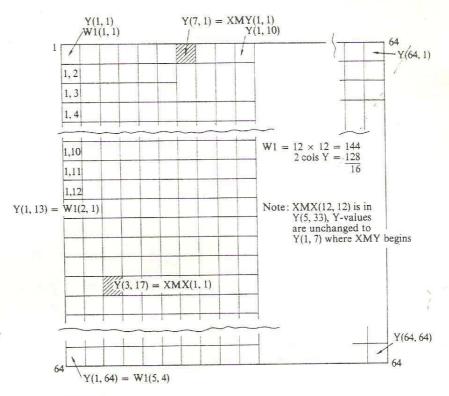


FIGURE 1-1 Computer core allocation for Y(64,64) and use of EQUIVALENCE to store three matrices W1, XMX, and XMY of size 12 × 12 in common core.

uses the same storage area between two subroutines. For example if W is a subscripted variable and

#### COMMON I, J, W

is used between two or more subroutines and/or the main program, all use the same common W(I,J) storage area, which results in a considerable saving in storage. Thus, in addition to avoiding the need to reidentify I, J and saving a space W(I,J) in each subroutine, the COMMON statement saves one or more W(I,J) storage areas and causes the computer to identify I and J as required. Note, too, that within a subroutine, one can further use

## EQUIVALENCE (A(I, J), W(I, J))

to save storage. The use of the EQUIVALENCE statement is illustrated in Chaps. 5 and 7.

A saving in core storage can be achieved for certain matrices which are sparse by only storing nonzero values. As an example, consider a matrix of the form

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} A & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & B & & & \\ 0 & & C & & \\ 0 & & & D & \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & E \end{bmatrix}$$

In normal matrix storage this would require S(5,5), or 25 storage locations. If this were stored as a single column of S(5,1)

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} A \\ B \\ C \\ D \\ E \end{bmatrix}$$

The storage requirement is  $5 \times 1 = 5$  storage locations. To store S as a column later to be multiplied by another matrix of dimension C(5,N) to obtain K as

$$K = SC$$

requires a slightly different method of computation. In the simple routine when S is square all that is required in the way of statements is

DO 36 I = 1, 5  
DO 36 J = 1, 5  
36 SAT = 
$$S(I,J) *C(J,I)$$

The computer program in Chap. 5 uses an S matrix in two columns.

A saving in core storage can also be achieved where one might multiply three matrices as follows:

$$P = ASA^TX$$

where

$$F = SA^TX$$

and

$$X = ASA^{T-1}P$$

The matrices would be A, S,  $A^T$  of sizes  $N \times M$ ,  $M \times M$ , and  $M \times N$  and a P matrix given of  $N \times 1$ . The X matrix of size  $N \times 1$  is to be found. Since  $A^T$  is the transpose matrix of A, rather than transposing and storing, let us transpose A as we

need it, thus storing only A. Also let us store S in two columns to save core. The  $SA^T$  matrix can be built as follows:

```
DO 40 I = 1, M
  DO 40 J = 1, N
  KA = I
  IF(I/2*2.EQ.I)KA = KA-1
  SAT(I, J) = S(I, 1)*A(J, KA) + S(I, 2)*A(J, KA + 1)
40 CONTINUE
```

This requires zeroing an A matrix of size  $N \times M + 1$  rather than size  $N \times M$ since any odd value of M will give KA + 1 as M + 1. Unpleasant results will be obtained regardless of the value of S(1,2) if this happens and A(J, M + 1) has not been defined.

Now let us save even more space. Suppose we no longer need A(I,J) after we build  $ASA^{T}$ . We will need it to build the  $ASA^{T}$ , but let us look at the routine.

```
DO 104 I = 1, N
   DO 15 J = 1, N
   EE(J) = 0.
   DO 15 K = 1, M
15 EE(J) = EE(J) + A(I, K)*SAT(K, J)
   DO 16 L = 1, N
16 E(I, L) = EE(L)
104 CONTINUE
```

What we will do is DIMENSION a new variable EE(J) with J = N. As noted, we build EE(J) one row (horizontally), using one row of A(I,K). The row of A(L,N) is not needed after building ASAT(1,N) = EE(N), and so after completing that row, the DO 16 loop is entered and E(I,L) is computed and placed over A(I,N). The statement

```
EQUIVALENCE (E(1,1), A(1,1))
```

stores the new E matrix one row at a time over A. Care must be exercised to doubleprecision A if E is double precision, or very unwanted results may occur.

#### 1-17 LOCATING ERRORS AND DEBUGGING PROGRAMS

Keypunch errors such as omitting commas, parentheses, etc., are printed on the program listing where they occur. Unclosed DO loops or references to statement numbers which have not been punched are indicated at the beginning of the PROGRAM MAP. Errors in arithmetic statements, such as dividing by zero, are of the general form

ILF225I PROGRAM INTERRUPT OLD PSW IS XXXXXXXXXXXABCD ILF226I PROGRAM INTERRUPT OLD PSW IS XXXXXXXXXXXXABCD

where i refers to the type of error [see a list of error messages; e.g., IBM (1968)]. The last four terms (ABCD) are useful for finding which statement produced this interrupt.

We use this error message as follows:

1 Look at the PHASE MAP to see the entry point under any of the headings LOCORE, LOADED, or REL-FR

on the IBM/360 system this number may be 3800 or 4000.

2 Obtain the last four digits and/or characters of the PSW and subtract the entry value (3800 or 4000) from these digits using binary techniques. In binary arithmetic, the alpha characters are understood to be

$$A = 10$$
  $B = 11$   $C = 12$   $D = 13$   $E = 14$   $F = 15$ 

For example, suppose ABCD was 8CD8, as

ILF225I PROGRAM INTERRUPT OLD PSW IS FF15000D82008CD8

Subtracting 3800, we have

$$8CD8 = 8 \quad 12 \quad 13 \quad 8$$

$$3 \quad 8 \quad 0 \quad 0$$

$$5 \quad 4 \quad D \quad 8$$

Note that 13-0 = 13, which is a D.

As another example, take ABCD as 96CA, which converted is

In this case in column 3 from the right, 6-8 is not possible, and so we borrow but 16 instead of 10, thus 16 + 6 - 8 = 14 = E.

3 Now one enters the MAP with the value of 54D8 or 5ECA and finds the statement line closest to the map location. This pinpoints the location within one or two lines, so that one can concentrate on locating the error here. The i

will indicate the type of error, e.g., dividing by zero, intermixing fixedand floating-point numbers, or unidentified variable usage.

This technique will not find subscript or address errors. Subscript errors can be found by using debugging subroutines such as

DEBUG SUBCHK  $(n_1, n_2, \ldots, n)$ 

and

CALL PDUMP  $(a_1, a_2, f_n)$ 

DEBUG SUBCHK is used to force the program to continue using the incorrect subscript(s) after writing it out. The variables  $n_1, n_2, \ldots$  are only those in subscripted arrays one wants to check, but by omitting the n identification all the subscripts are checked. Obviously, if everything is to be checked, the statement

#### DEBUG SUBCHK

would go in order at the end of the program as follows

STOP DEBUG SUBCHK END

The statement

CALL PDUMP  $(a_1,a_2,f)$ 

causes variables from  $a_1$  through  $a_2$  to be written according to format f. Ordinarily fwould be

- 4 integer
- 5 single precision
- 6 double precision

Looking at the SCALAR MAP helps determine what to have written with the PDUMP statement since this gives the order of storage/usage. In many cases one might not know exactly what to have written out at any time, i.e., how to make a good assignment of  $a_2$  so that the error will be included; therefore one inspects the SCALAR MAP.

#### REFERENCES

BRADLEY, JOHN H. (1969): "Programmer's Guide to the IBM System/360," McGraw-Hill, New York, 336 pp.

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# SOIL MECHANICS, EXPLORATION, BEARING CAPACITY, AND SETTLEMENT

#### 2-1 INTRODUCTION

It is presumed that the reader is already familiar with the principles of soil mechanics. This chapter provides a reference for the topics in soil mechanics to be considered or pertinent to the chapters that follow. A brief discussion of current soil tests and exploration procedures, including selected references, is provided so that the reader can evaluate the soil parameters needed in the foundation problems that follow. This information should enable one to estimate probable errors and in any case put the computer I/O soil information into proper perspective. An inspection of computer output data can indicate the possibility or impossibility of a solution, whether the correctness of the solution can be determined by inspection or not.

For an enlarged discussion on soil mechanics the reader should consult texts such as Lambe and Whitman (1969), Sowers and Sowers (1970), Terzaghi and Peck (1967), Bowles (1968, 1970), Leonards (1961), Richart et al. (1970), or Tomlinson (1969).

This chapter uses the metric system primarily, and Sec. 2-13 discusses the applicable SI (Système International d'Unités) conversion units.

At this point it will be useful for the reader to remember that

```
62.5 \times 1 \text{ g/cu cm} = 62.5 \text{ lb/cu ft}
1 \text{ g/cu cm} = 9.807 \text{ kN/cu m}
1 \text{ kg/sq cm} = 98.07 \text{ kN/sq m}
1 \text{ ton (metric)} = 1,000 \text{ kg} = 2,204 \text{ lb}
1 \text{ lb} = 453.5924 \text{ g}
1 \text{ kg} = 1,000 \text{ g} = 2.204 \text{ lb}
```

## 2-2 BASIC DEFINITIONS

Certain volumetric-gravimetric relationships in soil mechanics are defined. From these basic relationships any additional needed relationships can be derived if sufficient data are available or assumptions are made.

The tabulation on page 27 gives the common definitions and includes several additional equations frequently used.

In addition to these basic definitions it is necessary to consider the effect of water in the soil mass on the weight relationships. Water which is trapped in the soil voids above the water table and which does not move (because of discontinuities in the soil pores or surface-tension effects), increases the weight of the dry soil mass by the amount of water entrapped. Soil below the water table is buoyed up (like any object submerged in water) by the displaced volume of water. For obtaining the buoyant unit weight  $\gamma'$  of the submerged portion of the soil mass this becomes

$$\gamma' = \gamma_{\rm sat} - \gamma_{\rm w}$$

where  $\gamma_{sat}$  is the saturated unit weight of soil.

Pore pressure is another term of considerable importance in soil mechanics. It is the static water pressure in any soil pore that one would obtain from a column of water in a piezometer (calibrated tube) above that point for positive pore pressure (the usual case) or below the point considered (negative pore pressure). This concept is important because the fluid-pressure effect on the soil grains surrounding the point is exactly the same as if the water table were coincident with the water level in the piezometer. If the water table is below the level of water in a piezometer tube, the pore pressure is often termed excess pore pressure. The effective (intergranular or grain-to-grain contact) pressure  $\bar{\sigma}$  is

$$\bar{\sigma} = \sigma - \Delta u$$

where  $\sigma$  = total pressure to point under consideration

 $\Delta u$  = pressure due to piezometer column height of water

Definition	Symbol	Equation	Range
Water content	w	$\frac{W_{w}}{W_{s}} = \frac{\text{weight of water}}{\text{weight of dry soil}}$	$0 \le w < \infty$
Void ratio	е	$\frac{V_v}{V_s} = \frac{\text{volume of voids}}{\text{volume of solids}}$	0 < e < ∞
* **		$e = \begin{cases} \frac{n}{1-n} & \text{in terms of porosity} \\ wG_s & \text{when } S = 100\% \end{cases}$	
Porosity	п	$\frac{V_{v}}{V_{t}} = \frac{\text{volume of voids}}{\text{total sample volume}}$	0 < n < 1
		$n = \frac{e}{1 + e}$ $V_{w}  \text{volume of water}$	0 ≤ S ≤ 1
Degree of saturation	S	$\frac{V_{w}}{V_{v}} = \frac{\text{volume of water}}{\text{volume of voids}}$	05051
Specific gravity	$G_{\mathrm{s}}$	$\frac{\gamma}{\gamma_w} = \frac{\text{unit weight of material}}{\text{unit weight of water (4°C)}}$	2.40-3.00 2.60-2.70*
Unit weight	γ	$\frac{W}{V} = \frac{\text{weight of material}}{\text{corresponding volume}}$	
		$\gamma_{\text{dry}} = \int_{0}^{\infty} \begin{cases} \frac{G_s \gamma_w}{1 + e} \\ \frac{G_s \gamma_w}{1 + w G_s} \end{cases}  \text{when } S = 100\%$	

<sup>\*</sup> Most common range.

# 2-3 LABORATORY AND FIELD TESTING FOR FOUNDATION EVALUATION

Laboratory and field soil-testing programs enable the foundation engineer to establish the foundation design criteria, and to establish the probable foundation behavior, based on experience with foundation behavior of similar constructions in similar soils. The judgment factor is based on a realization of the heterogenous nature of soils and soil deposits and coupled with current findings on the character and physical properties of the site material from field and laboratory investigation.

. Blind faith in laboratory tests—especially if they are limited in number—is the essence of lawsuits. The test data should be analyzed together with sample inspection, boring records, and site inspection. The type of structure cost and structural loads should be considered. If possible, the worst as well as ideal site conditions should be analyzed to bracket the actual situation.

The laboratory tests should be chosen to yield the desired and necessary information as economically as possible. Elaborate and refined tests are justified only if the small increase (generally) in data accuracy will yield worthwhile savings in design or eliminate risk of a costly failure.

Soil tests of interest to the foundation engineer in order of increasing costs (approximately) are:

- 1 Visual examination
- 2 Natural moisture content  $w_N$
- 3 Liquid and plastic limits  $w_L$ ,  $w_P$
- 4 Grain-size analysis (mechanical).
- 5 Unconfined compression  $q_u$
- 6 Laboratory vane
- 7 Moisture-density or relative density
- 8 Permeability
- 9. Direct shear
- 10 Triaxial compression ( $\phi$  and c)
- 11 Consolidation
- 12 Chemical analysis

Tests 2, 3, and 4 are in any laboratory text, e.g., Bowles (1970), Lambe (1951). The hydrometer test for grain sizes smaller than the no. 200 sieve is seldom used in foundation work. The complete sieve analysis is rarely needed for building construction. On occasion the no. 4 and no. 200 sieves may be used to refine the classification of the soil. The no. 40 sieve is used to obtain soil for the liquid- and plastic-limit test.

The natural-moisture plot with depth tends to indicate the softer cohesive materials, alerts the engineer to abrupt changes, and may indicate preconsolidated soils.

The unconfined-compression test  $q_u$  is rather routine on cohesive samples. Many organizations also use pocket penetrometer values as a check on the unconfined-compression value.

The laboratory vane test is simple to perform in the laboratory on sensitive or fine-grained samples. A small vane is inserted into the sample, and the torque to shear a known volume of soil is measured.

Permeability tests are useful in dam studies, but find little use in building construction unless the construction site must be dewatered.

Direct shear and triaxial testing are necessary to evaluate the soil-strength parameters, angle of internal friction  $\phi$ , and cohesion c. The direct-shear test is also termed a plane-strain test. Angles of internal friction from direct-shear (or plane-

strain) tests tend to be from 2 to 4° [Lee (1970), with a summary from several sources] higher than in triaxial tests. Little difference is obtained with fine sands. For retainingwall or slope-stability problems, the plane-strain tests may be more realistic than triaxial tests since these failures are unidirectional.

Soil parameters from either direct-shear or triaxial tests depend heavily on the degree of saturation and resulting excess pore-water pressures developed during the test. Values range in clays and silts from  $\phi = 0^{\circ}$  for unconsolidated undrained (UU) tests to  $\phi = 30^{\circ}$  or more for consolidated drained (CD) tests. Pore pressure in granular materials with large coefficients of permeability k (order of  $10^{-2}$  to  $10^{2}$ cm/sec) dissipates rapidly, and thus there is little effect on the angle of internal friction. The water may, however, provide a small lubrication effect to reduce  $\phi$  perhaps 1 to 2°. Nonsaturated granular material may exhibit small amounts of cohesion due to surface-tension effects. Work of Schmertman and Osterberg (1960) indicates that cohesion tends to be mobilized in tests before the friction component, i.e., the two strength components are not acting at peak values simultaneously. Other aspects of this test will be considered in Sec. 2-6.

The consolidation test is used to predict the time-dependent settlements of structures situated on saturated, fine-grained deposits where the coefficient of permeability is so low that it takes long periods of time for the pore water to move from the points beneath the structure which are subjected to stress (and resulting porepressure increases) to a new equilibrium. The length of time t is proportional to the length of the drainage path squared, or

$$t = \frac{TH^2}{C_n} \tag{2-1}$$

where T = time factor

H = length of drainage path (L)

 $C_{\nu}$  = coefficient of consolidation ( $L^2/\text{Time}$ )

For a pore-pressure increase of  $\Delta u = \text{constant through the depth } H$  (the usual case considered) the time factor T for a given percent consolidation U is:

The coefficient of consolidation  $C_v$  can be obtained by solving Eq. (2-1) for  $C_v$ using laboratory time values for t. Also

$$C_{\nu} = \frac{k(1+e)}{a_{\nu}\gamma_{\nu\nu}} \tag{2-2}$$

where k is the coefficient of permeability and the term  $a_v$  is the slope of the void-ratio-versus-pressure curve (natural scale)

$$a_v = \frac{\Delta e}{\Delta p}$$

without regard to the negative sign. The coefficient of volume compressibility

$$m_v = \frac{a_v}{1+e} \tag{2-3}$$

is useful in consolidation settlement computations (refer to Fig. 2-1) as follows. By proportion

$$\frac{S}{H} = \frac{\Delta e}{1 + e} \tag{2-4}$$

but

$$\Delta e = a_v \Delta p$$

and

$$S = \frac{a_v \Delta p H}{1 + e}$$

or

$$S = \Delta p m_v H \tag{2-5}$$

Some people have interpreted Eq. (2-5) as being applicable to soils other than saturated, fine-grained materials (such as fine to medium saturated or nonsaturated sands). By inspection of  $m_v$  the units of  $1/m_v$  are those of the modulus of elasticity; thus, Eq. (2-5) could be written

$$S = \frac{\Delta pH}{1/m_v} = \frac{\Delta pH}{E_s}$$

which is the conventional expression for axial deformation in any text on mechanics of materials.

More conventionally, however, the consolidation settlement is computed using

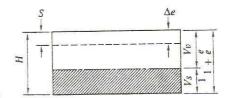


FIGURE 2-1 Settlement due to change in void ratio.

the compression index  $C_c$ , obtained as the slope of the void ratio versus log pressure

$$C_c = \frac{\Delta e}{\log\left(p_2/p_1\right)} \tag{2-6}$$

Solving for  $\Delta e$  and substituting into Eq. (2-4) gives

$$S = \frac{C_c H}{1 + e} \log \frac{p_2}{p_1} \tag{2-7}$$

where  $p_2$  = new in situ pressure = present  $p_1$  + increase  $\Delta p$ 

 $p_1$  = present value of overburden pressure (generally termed  $p_0$ )

The compression index  $C_c$  as given in Eq. (2-7) has the disadvantage of requiring a consolidation test, which may require several days. An approximate relationship exists between the liquid limit and  $C_c$ :

$$C_c \approx a(w_L - b) \tag{2-8}$$

where a, b are constants with typical values as follows:

а	Ь
0.007	10
0.009	10
0.007	10
0.005	10
0.0078	14
	0.009 0.007 0.005

One must apply rules of thumb when the soil is overconsolidated (or preconsolidated) to reduce the computed value from Eq. (2-7) to a more likely value. Two methods can be used: (1) compare the increase in pressure  $\Delta p$  to the difference between present overburden pressure  $p_0$  and the preconsolidation pressure  $p'_0$  as

$$\frac{\Delta p}{p_0' - p_0}$$

and guess (using experience) at the reduction, or (2) use the preconsolidation pressure  $p'_0$  value in the denominator of Eq. (2-7) instead of  $p_0$ . The second method is somewhat more realistic, but it has not yet been used enough to permit valid conclusions to be drawn. A saturated cohesive soil is preconsolidated if the natural moisture content  $w_N$  is closer to the plastic than liquid limit.

Chemical analysis is rarely used in foundation engineering. Occasionally it may be necessary to chemically stabilize a soil, in which case a knowledge of the soil's mineral composition may be desirable.

Table 2-1 lists some representative soil properties of soils from widely distributed geographical locations. This tabulation is from several sources not referenced since values are for illustrative purposes rather than quantitative use.

Table 2-1 REPRESENTATIVE SOIL PROPERTIES FROM DIFFERENT GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATIONS\*

Trans of soil and for description and location	$G_{\tilde{s}}$	y, g/cu cm	WL, %	10 p. %	Angle of internal friction $\phi$ , deg†	Cohesion c, kg/sq cm†
Type of son analysis associated	2.65-2.67	60 1 07 1			34-45	
Dense		1.44-1.76			30–35	
Loose Fine sand	2.65-2.67	1.44-1.76			32-38	
Loose		1.36-1.52			1	
Gravelly or coarse sand	2.65–2.67	1.76-2.08			34-50	
Dense		1.52-1.76			30-33	
Loose Fine sand (E. Pakistan)	2.65	1.35–1.54	30-45	20-4	25	
Micaceous silt (Georgia)	)	1.28-1.3	25–35	5-10	25-30	0.3-0.7
Clavey (Kans., Nebr.)		1.28-1.50	35-40	23-27		
Iowa (Wisconsin age)	2.68-2.72	1.32-1.83	28-33	10-20	32–33	0.02-0.17
Russian Redenosited (Argentina)	2.63	1.30-1.46	34-40	26–36	32	0.12
Rhineland silt (Aachen, Germany)			30	14	5	2.0 8_70
Clayey silt (S. Melbourne, Australia) Chalk (London)	2.70-2.72	1.52-1.62			10-150 U	
Glacial till	ī	1.85.7.00	15-28	6-16	32CD	
Otterbrook till (New England) Silvy clay, stiff (Central III.)	2.55	1.68–1.92	NP-40	NP-20		
(Wis.)	2.62	1.68–1.92	00-07	)    -		

Clay, fat (Israel)	2.77	1.38	64	32		
Dark gray (Bankok)	2.6-2.85	1.44 - 1.84	70-90	27-50	19	
	2.69-2.76	1.47-1.8	26-31	12-14		
	2.80		28	18	26	0.1R
Verconsolidated (Norway)		1.90	39	21	27-34	0.2
.eda (Canada)	2.78-2.83	1.04-1.08	40-80	18-30	17	0-1.5
London (overconsolidated)	2.74-2.84	1.6	70-90	24-30	18-19	0.9-3.5
						1.8UU
	2.76		43	18	22-23	0.100
(Aswan, Egypt)	2.65	1.5-1.8	71	33		0.12-0.5
Expansive (Tex.)		1.29	88	71	11.3	1.0
		1.38	61	47	6	0.3
Fertiary (Denmark)	2.77		127	36	10	
Silty (Vienna)	2.76		47	22	174	
Residual clayey granite (Puerto Rico)	2.73	1.70	NP		43	0.17
Residual soil (Hong Kong)		1.47 - 1.61	40-60	30-50	37	06.0
Kaolin (Singapore)		1.44	56	23	251	0.17-0.2
Granite (Singapore)		1.50	35-50	10-15	35	0.10
Holloysite clay (Gaum)		1.05	< 50		19	0.7-2.0
Residual clay (Calif.)		1.30	55	42	25	1-1.2
Black cotton soil (India)		ė	46-97	22-49		0.14a
12					13	n7
		1.78	> 50	47–161	33	6.0
Bearpaw, weathered (Canada)		1.36-1.53			6-20	0.2-0.4
		1.53-1.77			8-25	0.1–2
		1.53-1.85			20	7
		1.85-2.14			96	5 0-0

\* This list is not complete and is intended to be merely suggestive. It displays similarities in soil properties and consistency indexes w<sub>L</sub> and w<sub>p</sub> from different locations. Local soil or the same soil within any geographical location listed may vary considerably from this table.
† KEY: UU, undrained test; CD, consolidated drained test; R, remolded soil; q<sub>n</sub>, unconfined compression test; w, wet; NP, nonplastic.

Table 2-2 SOIL COMPONENTS AND FRACTIONS, INCLUDING PARTIAL USC SYMBOLS

Soil	Soil component	USC symbol	Grain-size range and description	Significant properties
	Boulder		Rounded to angular, bulky, hard,	Boulders and cobbles are very stable components.
			rock particle, average diam > 30	used for fills, ballast, and to stabilize slopes
Э			cm	(riprap); because of size and weight, their occur-
νəi	Cobble		Rounded to angular, bulky, hard,	rence in natural deposits tends to improve the
S †			rock particle, average diam be-	stability of foundations; angularity of particles
7 '(			tween 15 and 30 cm	increases stability
ou	Gravel	Ú	Rounded to angular bulky, hard,	Gravel and sand have essentially same engineering
SIU			rock particle, passing 3-in sieve	properties, differing mainly in degree (no. 4 sieve
ıəu			(76.2 mm), retained on no. 4 sieve	is an arbitrary division and does not correspond
tod			(4.76 mm)	to significant change in properties); they are easy
íw	Coarse		5 to 2 cm	to compact, little affected by moisture, not subject
co	Fine		2 cm to no. 4	to frost action; gravels generally more pervious
pə	Sand	S	Rounded to angular, bulky, hard,	stable, and resistant to erosion and piping than
aiı			rock particle, passing no. 4 sieve	sands; well-graded sands and gravels generally
818			(4.76 mm), retained on no. 200	less pervious and more stable than poorly graded
-99			sieve (0.74 mm)	and uniform gradation; irregularity of particles
ar	Coarse		No. 4 to 10 sieves	increases stability slightly; finer, uniform sand
0)	Medium		No. 10 to 40 sieves	approaches characteristics of silt, i.e., decrease in
	Fine		No. 40 to 200 sieves	permeability and reduction in stability with increase
				in moisture

Silt is inherently unstable, particularly when moisture is increased, with a tendency to become quick when saturated; it is relatively impervious, difficult to compact, highly susceptible to frost heave, easily erodible, and subject to piping and boiling; bulky grains reduce compressibility; flaky	grains, 1.e., mica, diatoms, increase compressibility and produce an elastic silt	Distinguishing character of clay is cohesion or	cohesive strength, which increases with decrease in	moisture; permeability of clay is very low; difficult	to compact when wet and impossible to drain by	ordinary means; when compacted, is resistant to	erosion and piping, is not susceptible to frost heave,	is subject to expansion and shrinkage with changes	in moisture; properties are influenced not only by	size and shape (flat, platelike particles) but also by	mineral composition, i.e., type of clay mineral, and	chemical environment or base-exchange capacity;	in general, the montmorillonite clay mineral has	greatest and illite and kaolinite the least adverse	ellect off tile probetties	Organic matter even in moderate amounts in- creases the compressibility and reduces the stability	of the fine-grained components; it may decay,	causing voids, or by chemical alteration change	the properties of a soil; hence organic soils are not	suitable for engineering uses
Particles smaller than no. 200 sieve (0.74 mm); identified by behavior, i.e., slightly or nonplastic regardless of moisture; little or no strength when air-dried		Particles smaller than no. 200 sieve	(0.74 mm); identified by behavior,	i.e., can be made to exhibit plastic	properties within a certain range	of moisture; considerable strength	when air-dried						*		The state of the s	Organic matter in various sizes and stages of decomposition				
Σ		O														0				
Silt		Clay														Organic matter				
	9V9	s C	500	.0	u	sau	DG	od	ш	CC	pər	iis	18-	-əui	H					

#### 2-4 SOIL CLASSIFICATION AND IDENTIFICATION

Soil classification as used for most foundation work consists in establishing the basic type of soil, e.g., rock, gravel, sand, silt, or clay (listed in decreasing value as a foundation material) as shown in Table 2-2.

The basic material shown in Table 2-2 is modified to obtain a soil classification. The following is typical of soils classified in this manner:

Color (wet state)	Description and soil classification	Unified classification
Brown	Sand, very fine, silty; nonplastic; contains a few angular gravel particles	SM
Tan	Sandy clay; sand particles are coarse, rounded; moderately tough at plastic limit	CL
Tan	Sand, coarse to fine, well graded, clean; sand is subrounded, gravel is angular	SW
Gray	Clayey sand; medium to fine sand; contains gravel-size shale fragments; clay portion moderately plastic	SC
Tan	Silt; contains slight amount of very fine sand	ML
Tan	Silty clay; slightly sandy; slight to moderate plasticity when wet	CL
Tan	Well-graded sand (approximately 10% of size 7 to 25 cm)	SW

In this system the classification specialist may use a certain amount of imagination, but it is imperative that he understand the classification method to obtain the correct interpretation of the gravel, sand, silt, or clay particles.

It is usual practice to use the Unified Soil Classification (USC) system directly or somewhat modified to obtain these terms. The USC, proposed by A. Casagrande (1948) as a method of classifying soils for airfield construction, considers the soil as:

Coarse-grained More than 50 percent of soil larger than 0.074 mm (no. 200 sieve)

Fine-grained More than 50 percent of soil smaller than 0.74 mm

The coarse-grained soil is:

Gravel More than 50 percent of the soil is coarser than 4.76 mm (no. 4 sieve) Sand More than 50 percent of the soil is between 4.76 and 0.074 mm

If the soil is fine-grained, the fine-grained fraction (passing a no. 200 sieve) of the total mass is classified as an organic or inorganic silt or clay. This can be estimated using the plasticity chart of Fig. 2-2. An organic soil can be determined by visual inspection (it is usually dark in color) and odor. If a considerable reduction, say 20 to 30 percent, occurs in the liquid limit over that of a fresh sample upon oven drying, the soil is probably organic.

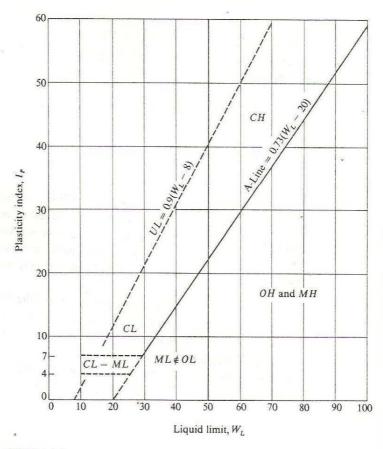


FIGURE 2-2 The Casagrande A chart for use in classifying soils. The upper-limit line is reported by the U.S. Corps of Engineers as the upper limit of soils encountered.

## Visual Classification

Generally the soil for foundation work is classified visually, supplemented with as few laboratory tests as possible (see Table 2-2). The liquid-  $w_L$  and plastic-  $w_P$  limit tests are often routine along with natural-moisture tests. With experience one can classify the soil rather accurately by the following:

1 For sand and gravel by an inspection. This may be supplemented by comparing laboratory standards (small jars of classified materials as fine, medium, and coarse sand).

2 For sands and fine-grained soils, place a small sample in water in a test tube or small jar and observe the rate of sedimentation and amounts in the strata making up the sediments at the end of the test. Typical times are as follows:

Approximate time to settle through 12 cm of water	Grain diam, mm	Differentiates
2 sec	> 0.4	Coarse and fine sand
30 sec	> 0.06	Sand and silt
10 min	> 0.03	Coarse and fine silt
1 h	> 0.01	Silt and clay

Since clay will flocculate and settle out rapidly as larger lumps, a dispersing agent using 8 to 10 cu cm of 4% sodium hexametaphosphate can be used to neutralize the particles. True clay particle sizes will keep the suspension turbid for a day or more. If some of the suspension is reduced in water content and rubbed between the fingers, clay will feel slippery, whereas silts and very fine sands are gritty.

- 3. Wet a spot on a lump of soil and rub it. If the finger or a spatula leaves a smooth slippery surface when rubbed across the spot, the material is clay. If the spot streaks, this is related to the number of grains larger than clay in the soil (silt or fine sand sizes).
- 4 Check the crushing strength of dry lumps (approximate minus no. 40 sieve size material). Clay lumps generally have higher crushing strength than silts as follows:

$$CH > MH$$
  $w_L > 50\%$   
 $CL > ML$   $w_L < 50\%$   
 $CH > CL$   
 $MH > ML$ 

However, an MH silt may have a higher crushing strength than a CL clay. In general, the dry crushing strength increases with increasing liquid limit.

5 Check the ease or difficulty of making a plastic-limit thread. Silts require more effort at higher water content than clays. It is nearly impossible to form threads with rock flours and fine sands.

## 2-5 SOIL EXPLORATION

All construction projects require knowledge of the surface and subsurface site conditions. How extensive this knowledge must be depends in part on the magnitude of the project, but in any case it must be adequate to provide structural stability and general construction and public safety.

Surface conditions can be obtained by a visual on-site inspection. Subsurface conditions can be obtained only by some method of soil exploration. As a minimum the subsurface exploration should determine the stratification of the deposit, the kinds of materials making up the various strata, and the location of the water table. The location of the water table may be impracticable; however, if it is in a zone which will influence construction or affect the design in any way, it must be located accurately. In other cases ascertaining its nonexistence in this zone is adequate.

In order to identify the soils encountered in the various strata, it is necessary to recover samples. The cheapest and most popular means of exploration is boring. A current and popular method is to use hollow auger boring, which is simply a continuous-flight, hollow-stem auger, truck-mounted, which augers a hole at the desired location. This system commonly uses:

Hole (approx OD), in	Auger OD, in	Hollow-stem ID, in
8	7	234
834	73	31/4
91	81	33

Material is continually discharged at the ground surface and is intermixed with that from varying locations. To obtain samples, the drill is halted at intervals of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to 5 ft, the drive disconnected from the auger, and a tube sampler inserted through the hollow stem to recover soil at the drill-tip location.

An alternative method of boring, termed wash boring, is also popular. This method utilizes a chopping bit, which is raised, rotated, and dropped onto the soil in the hole, thus chopping it up. Water is circulated through the hollow end of the bit to bring the cuttings to the surface. Drilling mud (a bentonite clay) may be used where the soil being penetrated will cave and may provide enough cohesion for the boring to stay open. This method of drilling can be used in rock, but the rate of hole advance is greatly reduced. Obviously, this method does not produce samples at the ground surface representative of the material at the drill point in either soil or rock.

Rock samples are obtained with some type of core drill, and the sample is a rock core. Soil samples must be obtained with some type of tube sampler.

#### Standard Penetration Test (SPT)

The common tube sampler is the standard split sampler (also called split spoon), a device 24 in long by 2 in OD by  $1\frac{3}{8}$  in ID, which accomplishes two things:

1 A disturbed soil sample is recovered, which can be visually inspected for classification and stored in containers for later laboratory verification and analysis.

- 2 An SPT datum (a number) is obtained. The test consists in:
  - a Seating the standard split sampler 6 in into the soil at the bottom of the borehole.
  - b Driving the sampler 12 in (additional) into the soil and recording the blows for each 6 in of penetration. The sum of the blows to advance the sampler 12 in is N (the penetration number).

The SPT consists of driving the standard split sampler using a 140-lb weight dropping 30 in onto the end of the drill rod, to the far end of which the sampler is attached. A guide is used to align the drive weight. The test has many shortcomings [Fletcher (1965)], but since about 1927 it has been widely used both in the United States and abroad.

Some effort has been made to modify and supplant the test because of its short-comings [Palmer and Stuart (1957); Schmertman (1967, 1970)], but the SPT is so widely used and so many people have built up considerable and successful experience with it that it is doubtful that it will ever become obsolete.

## Undisturbed Samples

When relatively undisturbed cohesive soil samples are needed for strength and settlement tests in the laboratory, thin-walled tubes may be inserted into the borehole (or through the hollow stem of the auger) and pushed into the soil to recover samples. These thin-walled tubes should have an area ratio defined as

$$A_r = \frac{\mathrm{OD^2 - ID^2}}{\mathrm{ID^2}} \tag{2-9}$$

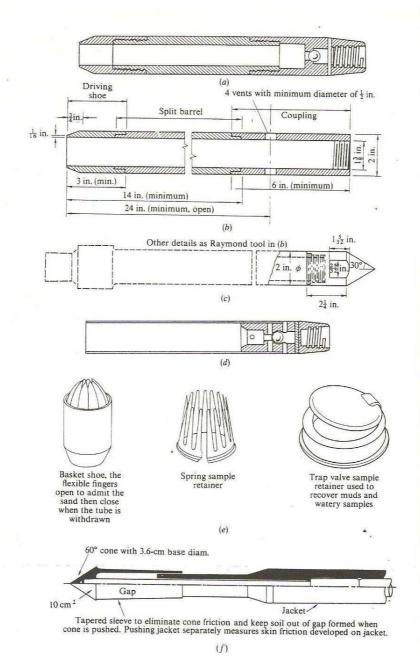
of 10 to 15 percent compared to 112 percent of the standard split sampler.

Suitable precautions must be taken to make sure the collected sample reaches the laboratory in as undisturbed a condition as possible.

It is nearly impossible to obtain an undisturbed soil sample due (at the very least) to loss of overburden pressure. There is always the loss of static water pressure from samples below the water table.

Cohesionless soils represent an even more formidable problem since the smallest disturbance may destroy their structure. Even if the sample is recovered "undisturbed," there is the problem of transporting and handling to get it to the laboratory and into the testing apparatus intact.

In gravelly soil the blow count may be either too high or too low and requires considerable judgment to arrive at a penetration number for use in Eq. (2-28). The efforts of Palmer and Stuart (1957) in placing a cone on the end of the split sampler are aimed at reducing the judgment factor (see Fig. 2-3).



#### FIGURE 2-3

Penetration and sampling devices: (a), (b) standard split spoon as widely used; (c) modification of standard split spoon with  $60^{\circ}$  cone for use in gravelly soils [Palmer and Stuart (1957)]; (d) thin-walled tube sampler for cohesive soils; (e) inserts for the standard split-spoon sampler for recovering cohesionless soil and muds; (f) Dutch cone modified to measure both point resistance  $C_R$  and skin friction [Vermeiden (1948)].

Shockley and Garber (1953) reported a series of tests which indicated that the sampling disturbance is related to the relative density. Changes in relative density during sampling operations within a range of  $\pm 15$  percent can easily occur.

It seems reasonable to assume that if the in-place density can be duplicated, the in-place grain structure should be approximately duplicated.

Because of the formidable problem of recovering cohesionless samples "undisturbed" and intact, it has become common practice to relate the SPT blow count and the experience factor to the in situ relative density and predicted soil performance. The initial proposal was made by Terzaghi and Peck (1948), as shown by the solid line of Fig. 2-4. Gibbs and Holtz (1957) found that blow counts near the ground surface

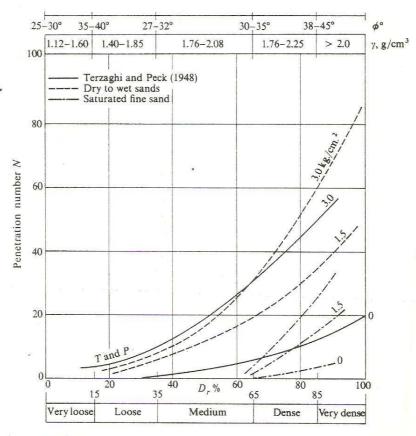


FIGURE 2-4
Chart for correcting SPT blow count for effect of overburden pressure. [After Gibbs and Holtz (1957).]

As an example, we are given rection it is necessary to know the in situ relative density and overburden pressure. correct the blow count for SPT near the ground surface. In order to make the corable to use the Terzaghi and Peck curve without being overly conservative one may are smaller for the same relative density than deeper in the ground. In order to be

$$D_r = 0.60$$

$$\gamma = 1.8 \text{ g/cu cm}$$

$$Depth = 2 \text{ m} \approx 6 \text{ ft}$$

$$N' = 12 \text{ blows}$$

1.08 kg/sq cm and  $D_r = 60$  percent, then project vertically to the Terzaghi and Peck Find the corrected blow count, i.e., enter at W', project horizontally to approximately

This chart also indicates that blow-count corrections may be necessary in curve. By inspection N should be approximately 26 blows.

Other data shown on Fig. 2-4 are for preliminary estimation and are not insaturated fine sands.

tended to replace laboratory testing.

## Vane Testing

Soils of this type are considered to be sensitive clays (or silts). Sensitivity of a soil is testing should be considered if gravel is not present [Gray (1957), Gibbs et al. (1960)]. information would be misleading, as in saturated, fine-grained soils, in-place vane When the soil is likely to be disturbed in recovery, so that the resulting laboratory

remolded strength (01-2)undisturbed strength

and the range of values is approximately as follows:

8 <
8-1
7-7
<sup>2</sup> C

greater than about 4. It will be very difficult to recover "undisturbed" samples in soils with sensitivities

#### Dutch Cone

The Dutch cone is a cone-shaped device (Fig. 2-3) developed in the Netherlands in the early 1930s. It has since been refined somewhat but is in essence a cone with a pointed tip 3 cm long and a 60° angle (60° with horizontal at base of cone). The cone projection encompasses a base diameter of 3.57 cm and an area of 10 sq cm. It is attached to a 1.90-cm rod. The resistance of pushing the cone at a velocity of 1 to 2 cm/sec for 10 cm is measured. The resistance is related to bearing capacity. Later versions [Vermeiden (1948)] include a calibrated length of pipe sleeve for the push rod of the same OD as the cone base (3.6 cm). By pushing the sleeve the shear resistance of the soil can be measured separately. The Dutch cone is also used with considerable success in silt and fine-sand deposits.

The Dutch cone is widely used in Europe and appears to be making considerable inroads in other parts of the world.

Schmertman (1970) has made some comparisons of the Dutch cone, the SPT, and a relatively new device, termed a *screw plate*, claimed to provide reasonably good in situ data.

## 2-6 SHEAR STRENGTH

This section considers the essentials of soil shear strength needed in order to attack the problems given herein. There is a massive amount of literature on this topic, including two conferences devoted solely to the subject, one at Boulder, Colorado, in 1960 (Research Conference on Shear Strength of Cohesive Soils, ASCE) and the other at Ottawa, Canada, in 1963 (ASTM STP 361).

#### Cohesive Soils

The Mohr-Coulomb strength theory is

$$\tau = c + \sigma \tan \phi \tag{2-11}$$

where

 $\tau$  = shear strength at failure

c = cohesion of soil

 $\sigma$  = normal stress on failure surface

 $\tan \phi = \text{friction coefficient}$ 

The correct values of c and  $\phi$  are evaluated on the basis of effective stresses on the failure plane, i.e., using the intergranular or effective stress  $\bar{\sigma}$  for the  $\sigma$  term in

Eq. (2-11). The statement of what should be done is easy; how to do it is the difficulty.

For fully saturated soils the effective stress can be obtained with a fair degree of accuracy (probably  $\pm 10$  percent). In partially saturated soils the effective stress is an educated guess. The principal reasons for discrepancies between measured and actual values are (1) the lack of means for accurately obtaining the pore pressure  $\Delta u$ to compute

$$\bar{\sigma} = \sigma - \Delta u$$

and (2) for partially saturated soils the location of the pore water. Usual methods of measuring pore pressure are to attach waterlines to the ends of the sample in a triaxial cell or insert a large needle piezometer into the sample near midheight and connect the line to a pressure transducer or other pore-pressure measuring device. Unless the pore pressure is the same at the pressure takeoff point as on the failure surface, errors result. In the direct-shear test there is currently no means of measuring the pore pressure. In this test the only method for obtaining the true soil parameters is to load the specimen, wait until consolidation halts, then test so slowly that pore pressures do not build up again as the grains on the failure surface move about.

Fortunately, many problems do not require precise evaluation of the parameters.

#### TYPES OF SHEAR TESTS

## A Unconsolidated-Undrained (UU, or Quick) Test

No drainage during application of confining cell pressure  $\sigma_3$  or normal load in direct shear. The sample obviously consolidates somewhat, depending on initial degree of saturation and how soon testing starts after load application. No drainage is allowed during the test; hence the descriptive term undrained. The unconfined-compression test is considered to be a UU test with  $\sigma_3 = 0$ . This test yields minimum apparent values of  $\phi$  and maximum cohesion.

## B Consolidated-Undrained (CU) Test

Drainage is allowed during application of the  $\sigma_3$  or normal load. The sample consolidates with respect to the applied pressure as observed via drainage (or vertical settlement in the direct-shear test). No drainage is allowed during the test. Larger values of  $\phi$  are obtained, and cohesion is somewhat less than in the UU test.

# C Consolidated-Drainage (CD or CS) Test

Only difference between this test and the CU test is that drainage takes place during the test and the test rate is slow enough to ensure that pore pressures do not build up. True or effective values of  $\phi$  and c are obtained.

Approximately true values of  $\phi$  and c are obtained, however, in the UU and CU tests if pore pressures are measured and the normal stress corrected for pore pressure. Where construction or final loads occur so rapidly that pore pressures cannot dissipate, the UU shear-test parameters should be used. Examples are rapidly constructed embankments on clay substrata, strip loading rapidly placed on a clay deposit, or a rapidly constructed clay dam core. An embankment constructed very slowly or a strip slowly loaded over a long time represents a CD analysis.

#### COMMON METHODS OF DETERMINING SHEAR STRENGTH

One method of evaluating the approximate unconfined compression strength of a soil is to use the SPT of Sec. 2-5. A relationship between N and  $q_u$  is shown in Fig. 2-5.

The field vane test may be used. The vane is embedded 45 to 50 cm into the soil to be tested and is rotated at about  $0.1^{\circ}/\text{sec}$ , so that failure occurs in 3 to 10 min. The vane is 5 to 10 cm in diameter with a height-to-diameter (h/d) ratio of at least 2.

$$\tau = \frac{T}{\pi (d^2 h/2 + d^3/6)} \tag{2-12}$$

The reader should consult ASTM STP 193 (1956), ASTM STP 399 (1965), and Aas (1965) for additional vane-shear information.

## UNCONFINED-COMPRESSION TEST (COHESIVE SOILS)

This is the most commonly used test of all. Much of the time, however, it is used on SPT samples which are highly disturbed due to the large tube-area ratio. The disturbed values tend to be conservative, but they may be too conservative and should be supplemented by "undisturbed" thin-wall-tube samples if the shear strength is coming in low, say, less than 0.5 kg/sq cm.

#### DIRECT-SHEAR AND TRIAXIAL TESTS

The direct-shear and triaxial tests are relatively simple (if pore pressure is not measured) and should be used with undisturbed samples if there is any question about the results obtained by the unconfined-compression or SPT method. These tests do not improve on vane-test data, in general, as the vane is ordinarily used for soils where sample recovery is difficult due to high sensitivity of the soil.

### Cohesionless Soils

In cohesionless soils

$$\tau = \sigma \tan \phi \tag{2-13}$$

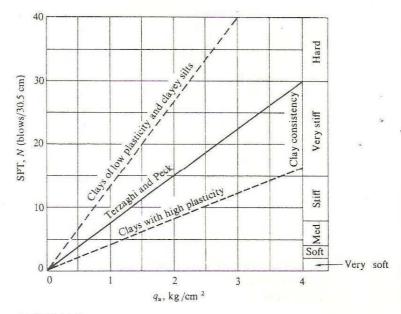


FIGURE 2-5 Approximate relationship between SPT blow count N and the unconfined compressive strength of cohesive soils.

Generally pore pressure is not a problem. The angle of internal friction is very sensitive to the soil density, however (Fig. 2-6), and a small increase in density may change  $\phi$ by 8 to 10°.

It is difficult to obtain undisturbed samples for direct-shear or triaxial tests. One usual practice is to duplicate the in situ density with a laboratory sample and obtain  $\phi$ .

## 2-7 POISSON'S RATIO

As this material property is of considerable value in the solution of settlement problems, is indirectly of value in lateral-stress problems, may be used to evaluate the modulus of subgrade reaction, and has general use in three-dimensional stresses, it warrants a brief discussion here.

Poisson's ratio is defined as the ratio of lateral ( $\varepsilon_3$ ) to longitudinal strain ( $\varepsilon_1$ ) as

$$\mu = \frac{\varepsilon_1}{\varepsilon_3} \tag{2-14}$$

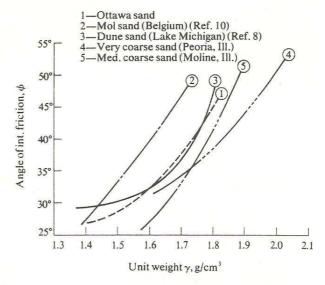


FIGURE 2-6 Relationship between density and angle of internal friction  $\phi$  for several cohesionless soils.

This elastic constant is particularly difficult to evaluate in the laboratory. It appears that it may be determined by measuring the volumetric strain in a triaxial test. If we let  $\Delta V$  be the change in volume of the triaxial specimen and V the initial volume, then

$$\varepsilon_v = \frac{\Delta V}{V}$$

This value of  $\varepsilon_v$  equals  $\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_2 + \varepsilon_3$ , the sum of the three principal strains. In the triaxial test  $\varepsilon_2 = \varepsilon_3$ ; therefore,

$$\varepsilon_{v} = \frac{\Delta V}{V} = \varepsilon_{1} + 2\varepsilon_{3}$$

Since

$$\varepsilon_1 = \frac{1}{E} \left( \sigma_1 - \mu \sigma_2 - \mu \sigma_3 \right)$$

in general for a triaxial test with  $\sigma_2 = \sigma_3$ 

$$\varepsilon_1 = \frac{1}{E} \left( \varepsilon_1 - 2\mu \sigma_3 \right)$$

Similarly, in general

$$\varepsilon_3 = \frac{1}{F} \left( \sigma_3 - \mu \sigma_1 - \mu \sigma_2 \right)$$

and for the triaxial test

$$\varepsilon_3 = \frac{1}{E} \left[ \sigma_3 - \mu (\sigma_1 + \sigma_2) \right]$$

Solving and substitution gives

$$\varepsilon_v = \varepsilon_1 (1 - 2\mu) \tag{2-15}$$

from which

$$\mu = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{\varepsilon_v}{\varepsilon_1} \right) \tag{2-16}$$

Lee (1970) has presented data indicating that Poisson's ratio will be affected by the confining pressure, i.e., reduces as pressure increases. Jakobson (1957) has shown that  $\mu$  also depends on soil density and in general increases as

$$\mu = \mu_0 \sin \phi \tag{2-17}$$

with  $\phi$  the angle of internal friction and  $\mu_0$  is a constant to be determined for the soil. It has been common [Terzaghi (1943), for example] to evaluate Poisson's ratio as a condition of no lateral strain and (in the plane-strain case) to obtain

$$\mu = \frac{K}{1+K} \tag{2-17a}$$

where K is the coefficient of lateral pressure  $(K_a \text{ or } K_0 \text{ is often used})$ .

From Eq. (2-16) it is evident that if  $\varepsilon_n = 0$ , that is, no volume change, then Poisson's ratio is 0.5. This is the situation for incompressible materials such as water; therefore, fully saturated soils with low coefficients of permeability would initially experience  $\mu = 0.5$ . It should be evident also that if the soil structure collapsed so that a decrease in volume occurred, Poisson's ratio would be larger than 0.5 since the ratio  $\varepsilon_v/\varepsilon_1$  now becomes additive to 1.00.

It is possible to obtain Poisson's ratio in the field by two other methods: (1) by seismic techniques [Maxwell and Fry (1967)] or (2) by the use of a borehole pressure meter [Calhoon (1969), Dixon and Jones (1968), Livneh et al. (1971)]. The pressure meter operates by expanding a cylinder in the borehole. By observing the amount of expansion and the pressure to obtain this deformation, one may use the theory of an infinitely thick cylinder subjected to an internal pressure to obtain the desired elastic constants. Users of this device are able to make reasonably good estimates of at-rest earth pressure ( $K_0$  condition) as additional information.

It can be shown [Seely and Smith (1952)] that the radial displacement of a thick-walled cylinder of radii  $r_1$ ,  $r_2$  subjected to an internal pressure p is

$$\Delta r = \frac{pr_1}{E_s} \left( \frac{r_2^2 + r_1^2}{r_2^2 - r_1^2} + \mu \right)$$

which for  $r_2 \to \infty$  becomes

$$\Delta r = \frac{pr_1}{E_s} \left( 1 + \mu \right) \tag{2-18}$$

With two values of internal pressure p and two measured values of  $\Delta r$  one can compute Poisson's ratio and the in situ stress-strain modulus  $E_s$ .

The seismic method utilizes the velocity of either the shear or Rayleigh waves through the soil mass. These waves are induced by applying energy to the soil mass, generally in a vibratory mode, and the resulting shock-wave velocity is measured. When vibration energy is applied to the soil, three types of energy waves are produced:

- P Compression waves
- S Shear waves
- R Rayleigh waves

The Rayleigh wave travels near the ground surface and is relatively easy to detect, thus obtaining its velocity. The shear wave should be used, but since it is somewhat more difficult to obtain and since there is little difference in the two velocities, the Rayleigh wave velocity is often used.

From seismic principles

$$G = v_s^2 \rho \tag{2-19}$$

where G = shear modulus

 $v_s$  = velocity of shear-wave velocity  $\approx$  Rayleigh wave velocity  $v_s$ 

 $\rho = \text{mass density of soil}, \gamma/g$ 

 $\gamma$  = wet unit weight of soil

g = acceleration of gravity

The shear modulus is also

$$G=\frac{E_s}{2(1+\mu)}$$

Thus if  $E_s$  is known, one can obtain  $\mu$  as

$$\mu = \frac{E_s}{2v_s^2 \rho} - 1 \tag{2-20}$$

As this is not very precise because of problems in evaluating  $E_s$ , one may also measure the compression wave (P wave), which, being the fastest, gets to the pickup unit first. If this value is obtained, the ratio of the two velocities is

$$M = \frac{v_c}{v_s} \approx \frac{v_c}{v_r}$$

and

$$\mu = \frac{M^2 - 2}{2(M^2 - 1)} \tag{2-21}$$

We can now obtain the soil modulus of elasticity using Eqs. (2-19) and (2-21) as

$$E_s = 2(1 + \mu)G$$

Table 2-3 lists typical values of Poisson's ratio  $\mu$  as compiled from several sources.

Table 2-3 POISSON'S RATIO FOR SELECTED MATERIALS

Material	Poisson's ratio	ı
Sand:		
Dense	0.30.4	
Loose	0.2-0.35	
Fine $(e = 0.4-0.7)$	0.25	
Coarse $(e = 0.4-0.7)$	0.25	
Rock (basalt, granite, limestone, sandstone, schist, shale)	0.1-0.4 depending on ro quality; common	ck type, density, and aly 0.15-0.25
Clay		
Wet	0.1-0.3	
Sandy	0.2-0.35	•.
Silt	0.3-0.35	
Saturated clay or silt	0.45-0.50	
Glacial till (wet)	0.2-0.4	· · · · · · · ·
Loess	0.1-0.3	
Ice	0.36	
Concrete	0.15-0.25	
Steel	0.28-0.31	

# 2-8 STRESS-STRAIN MODULUS (MODULUS OF ELASTICITY)

It would appear on initial examination that determining the stress-strain modulus  $E_s$  of a soil merely involves plotting a stress-strain curve as for other materials such as steel, concrete, etc. Unfortunately this is not the case, several major factors complicating the procedure.

- 1 The stress-strain curve is not linear (Fig. 2-7) over any significant portion of strain.
- 2 With a nonlinear curve, does one use:
  - a Initial tangent modulus?
  - b Any tangent modulus?
  - c A secant modulus? If a secant modulus is used, where are the curve intercepts to be taken?
- 3 The stress-strain curve is sensitive to the confining pressure  $\sigma_3$ . In this context, the unconfined-compression test has the confining pressure  $\sigma_3 = 0$ .
- 4 The stress-strain curve is sensitive to sample disturbance.

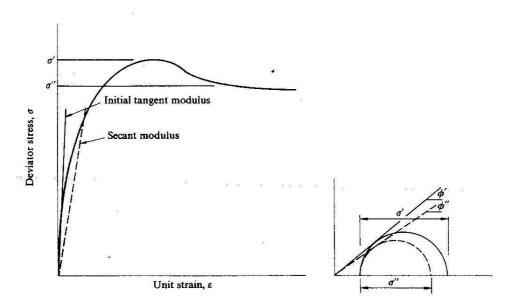


FIGURE 2-7 Effect of using the tangent modulus or secant modulus noting that other locations for both these moduli could have been used. Also shown is the effect on  $\phi$  of using the peak stress to plot Mohr's circle or using the stress value at a larger strain.

These factors will now be considered individually. It is not universal practice to use either the initial tangent modulus or a secant modulus (a secant modulus is often obtained using the origin and the estimated structure contact pressure as intercepts). The tendency seems to be toward the initial tangent modulus, but this is probably because that location is not as sensitive to cell pressure (see Fig. 2-7).

The confining cell pressure affects  $E_s$  rather markedly. It appears appropriate to use as a cell pressure the in situ lateral pressure, which is

$$\sigma_h = \gamma z K_0$$

where  $K_0$  is the at-rest lateral earth-pressure coefficient. It also appears, based on considerable research work [Brooker and Ireland (1965), Noorany and Seed (1965)], that the equation proposed by Jaky (1948)

$$K_0 = 1 - \sin \phi \tag{2-22}$$

is reasonably valid both for normally consolidated clay and cohesionless soils (although Brooker and Ireland prefer  $0.95 - \sin \phi$  for normally consolidated clay). In this equation  $\phi$  is the *effective* angle of internal friction.

Using data presented by Sherif and Koch (1970), we find the at-rest earthpressure coefficient  $K_0$  for a soil with an overconsolidation ratio OCR =  $p'_0/p_0$  to be approximately

$$K_0 = 0.70 + 0.10(OCR - 1.2)$$
 (2-23)

Values of  $K_0$  for normally consolidated clays are approximately 0.60  $\pm$  0.10 and for cohesionless materials  $0.50 \pm 0.10$ .

It appears from inspection of many stress-strain curves that using an arbitrary  $\sigma_3$  value of 0.5 to 1.0 kg/sq cm and the initial tangent modulus is reasonably adequate.

A major problem, however, is that laboratory values of stress-strain modulus are generally too low [Ladd (1964), Klohn (1965), Soderman et al. (1968)] compared to in situ plate tests or full-scale structure performance. This is probably an accumulation of sample disturbance, problems of preparing samples with perpendicular ends when any gravel is present, extracting the samples from the collection tube, nonduplication of in situ stress and pore-water conditions, and interpretation of curve coordinates. Unconfined-compression values tend to be 4 to 10 times too low. Triaxial values range from approximately correct to 5 or 6 times too low.

Because of these shortcomings the borehole pressure-meter device cited earlier may hold considerable promise, although one should realize that it measures horizontal properties and may not provide the desired values unless the soil is isotropic.

De Beer (1967) cites the use of the cone (Dutch cone) penetrometer to obtain the stress-strain modulus of a soil. The relationship is simple

$$E_s = 1.5C_R$$

where  $C_R$  is the cone resistance in kilograms per square centimeter.

Typical ranges of stress-strain moduli for several soils are given in Table 2-4.

Table 2-4 TYPICAL VALUES OF STRESS-STRAIN MODULUS E<sub>s</sub>\*

Soil	$E_s$ , kg/sq cm	Comments
Sandy gravel	800–3,000	
Sand:	<u> </u>	Depends on Poisson's ratio, test method, and
Loose	100-250	confining pressure in triaxial tests
Dense	500-1,000	
Silty	50-200	
Fine to silty fine	50–180	2007
Shale .	1,400-14,000	If under about 1,500, may be troublesome
Silt	20–200	
Clay:	Maria: All	Depends heavily on triaxial cell pressure, sample
Soft	3-30	disturbance, and water content
Mediùm	45-90	
Stiff	70-200	
Leda clay	650-1,100	\$600 250e WW 54 00W
Norwegian clay	$250-500q_{u}$	$q_u = \text{unconfined-compression strength}$
Marine clay	14–70	
Glacial till	100–1,600	•
Loess	150-600	Depends heavily on porosity $n$ and water content

<sup>\*</sup> Values are based on static tests and are not recommended for use in dynamic analysis. Note that with the wide range of values shown, these values are of use only for estimation and guidance of probable magnitude.

# 2-9 MODULUS-OF-SUBGRADE REACTION

This book makes considerable use of the concept of the modulus-of-subgrade reaction (refer to idealized stress-deformation curve Fig. 2-8), designed as

$$k_s = \frac{q}{\delta}$$

where  $k_s = \text{modulus of subgrade reaction } (FL^{-3})$ 

 $q = \text{intensity of soil pressure } (FL^{-2})$ 

 $\delta$  = deformation at q pressure intensity (L)

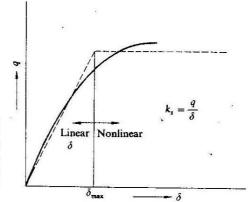


FIGURE 2-8 Qualitative load-deformation data for subgrade modulus  $k_s$ . Curve is divided into linear and nonlinear zones. If soil deformation exceeds the maximum deflection  $\delta_{\text{max}}$ , the equation shown on the figure does not apply; i.e., soil pressure = const.

The concept of subgrade modulus has been widely used for rigid pavement design and with considerable success for beam-on-elastic-foundation problems.

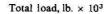
There has been reluctance to use the subgrade-modulus concept for many foundation engineering problems, due in part to the apparent difficulty of obtaining a value to use. The most popular method has been to use plate-load tests.

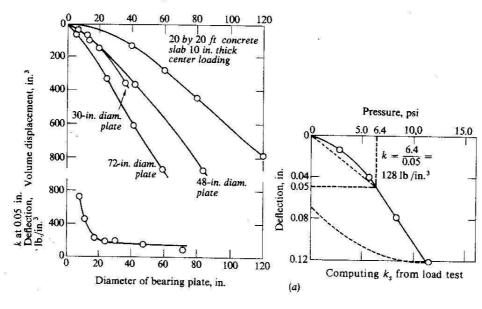
Field load-test procedures have used square plates commonly  $30.5 \times 30.5$  cm and round plates from 30.5 to 76 cm in increments of 15 cm. The plate thickness is commonly 2.5 cm to reduce bending, although the plates are machined so that the smaller plates can be stacked on the larger-diameter ones before loading to reduce bending effects. It should be realized that the subgrade-modulus concept as given here is valid only for elastic (flexible) plates such that the deformation is sufficient to obtain approximately uniform contact pressure over the plate area. Since plateload tests for subgrade modulus are the same as for other plate-load tests, the reader should consult ASTM Standards part 11 for general load-test procedures. .

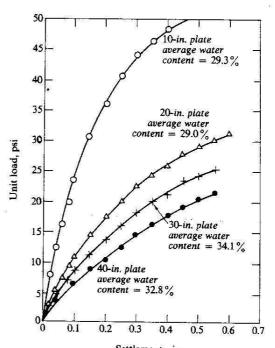
Field load testing requires some means of providing a large load to the plate. This can be accomplished by jacking against a crawler tractor or loaded flat-bed equipment trailers or driving tension piles to be used with a crossbeam to provide the load reaction.

Plate-load test data are presented as shown in Fig. 2-9. From such plots the modulus-of-subgrade reaction is obtained. Since the curve is seldom straight over any appreciable range of deformation, one must arbitrarily choose coordinates. The Road Research Laboratory (1952) uses the pressure corresponding to 0.13 cm (0.05 in), obtaining

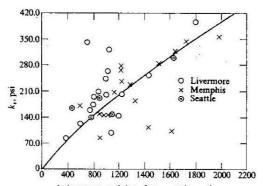
$$k_s = \frac{q}{0.13}$$
 kg/cu cm





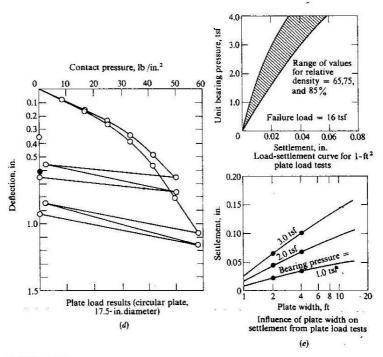


Settlements, in.
Summary of results of field bearing tests—buckshot clay, natural condition.



Laboratory modulus of compression, psi
The relation of subgrade bearing values to the modulus of compression
of the top 9 in. of subgrade as determined by laboratory triaxial tests.

(c)



#### FIGURE 2-9

Typical load-test data accumulated from the literature cited. (a) Load-test data from Phillipe (1947), including a typical computation of  $k_s$ . Note that volume displacement = area of plate  $\times$  average deflection. (b) Load-test data from Osterberg (1947). (c) Comparison of  $E_s$  from laboratory triaxial-test data and  $k_s$ . The author has converted the original ordinates to  $k_s$  since the original paper gave data based on S=0.2 in, 30-in plate, and total load. (Palmer, 1947.) (d) Load-test data from Vesić and Johnson (1963). (e) Load-test data from D'Appolonia et al. (1968). Ton units here are 2,000 lb.

The U.S. Corps of Engineers has used the deformation corresponding to 0.7 kg/sq cm (10 psi) for evaluation of subgrades for airfields as

$$k_s = \frac{0.7}{\delta}$$
 kg/cu cm

The Navdocks Design Manual (1961) uses the pressure and corresponding deflection at one-half the yield pressure. The data can be plotted to a log-log scale, and where tangents to the two straight-line parts of the resulting curve intersect taken as yield pressure. If a zero correction occurs due to imperfect plate seating as determined from a natural arithmetic plot, the deformation data should be corrected prior to making the log plot for yield stress.

California bearing (CBR) tests have also been used to obtain the subgrade modúlus [see, for example, Nascimento and Simoes (1957), Black (1961), Barata (1967)]. The penetration load at 0.25-cm (0.10-in) penetration converted to pressure (load per area, where area is computed based on a piston diameter of 4.95 cm) yields

$$k_s = \frac{q_{\text{CBR}}}{0.25}$$

A laboratory method proposed by Vesić (1961, 1963) uses the stress-strain modulus obtained from triaxial tests. To accept the validity of this method one must accept the validity of the concept of the soil stress-strain modulus  $E_s$ . Since the stress-strain modulus is widely used in spite of limitations noted in Sec. 2-8, there is no valid reason not to accept the concept of modulus-of-subgrade reaction.

The Vesić equation for subgrade reaction is

$$k_s' = 0.65 \sqrt[12]{\frac{E_s B^4}{E_b I_b}} \frac{E_s}{1 - \mu^2}$$
 (2-25)

where  $k_s' = k_s B (FL^{-2})$ 

 $E_s = \text{stress-strain modulus } (FL^{-2})$ 

 $\mu = Poisson's ratio$ 

B =width of footing

 $E_bI_b$  = flexural rigidity of footing

It should be noted that this value of subgrade modulus includes the footing width. Inspection of Eq. (2-25) indicates that

$$0.65 \sqrt[12]{\frac{E_s B^4}{E_b I}}$$

will be approximately 0.9 to 1.5 with an average value for footings of modest proportions of about 1.2; thus

$$k_{\rm s}' \approx 1.2 \, \frac{E_{\rm s}}{1 - \mu^2}$$
 (2-25a)

and is accurate to the degree of precision of laboratory determination of  $E_s$ .

Figure 2-9c indicates some discrepancy between the  $E_s$  versus field values of  $k_s$  based on a 76.2-cm (30-in) diameter plate and the Vesić method of extrapolation of  $E_s$ . For example, for the following data, plate = 1 in thick (assumed)

$$B = 30 \text{ in}$$
  $E_p = 30 \times 10^6 \text{ psi}$   $E_s = 800 \text{ psi}$   $\mu = 0.25$   $I_w = 0.88 \text{ rigid}^1$   $I_p = \frac{\pi d^4}{32}$   $I_w = 0.82 \text{ square}$   $k_s = 0.65 \frac{0.88}{0.82} \frac{12}{\sqrt{\frac{800(30)^4(32)}{30 \times 10^6 \pi (30)^4}}} \frac{800}{1 - 0.25^2}$   $= 0.70 \frac{12}{\sqrt{\frac{800(32)}{30 \times 10^6 \pi}}} (853)$   $= 0.70(0.554)(853) = \frac{330}{30} = 110 \text{ pci} < 140 \text{ in Fig. 2-9c}$ 

This discrepancy is of the same order of magnitude as shown in Chap. 5 using the Vesić plate-load test data. Much of the discrepancy can be attributed to unreliable  $E_s$  values determined by triaxial tests in the laboratory, as discussed in the preceding section. Noting both here and in Chap. 5 that the Vesić values of  $k_s$  are lower and also noting that laboratory values of  $E_s$  generally are lower, it would appear that the Vesić equation is satisfactory if one can obtain the correct value of  $E_s$ .

Terzaghi (1955) and Vesić (1961) proposed correcting  $k_s$  for length-to-width effects. The Terzaghi proposal was

$$k_m = k_s \frac{m + 0.5}{1.5m}$$

where  $k_m$  is the square plate  $k_s$  corrected for m = L/B effect.

From the data given on the only large-scale model tests in the literature [Vesić and Johnson (1963)] it appears that corrections for L/B > 1 are not necessary. This is illustrated in Chap. 5, where the Vesić data are used to compare the effect of  $k_s$  on beams on an elastic foundation.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Bowles (1968), p. 87.

Vesić and Johnson (1963) provided both plate-load test data (Fig. 2-9d) and triaxial test data. Comparing these data (with  $\mu = 0.25$ ) by several methods and including the beam widths (20 cm) yields:

Method	$k_s$ , kg/sq cm	
Vesić (by Vesić, see Table 5-1)	71.9, 90.3, 109.8	
Using $\delta$ at $q = 0.7$ kg/sq cm (10 psi)	123.2	
Using q at $\delta = 0.127 \text{ cm } (0.05 \text{ in})$	123.2	
Using q at 1.75 kg/sq cm $\approx$ one-half yield	134.7	

The stress-strain modulus used by Vesić was 83.4 kg/sq cm. Other data from these experiments are given in Table 5-1. It can be seen from the above illustrations, however, that  $k_s$  is not highly sensitive to curve coordinates.

A reasonable approximation of  $k_s$  can be obtained from the allowable soil pressure. This method is presented on the assumption that the allowable soil pressure is based on some maximum amount of deformation S, including a safety factor (SF); thus

$$k_s = \frac{(SF)q_a}{S} \tag{2-26}$$

where S and  $q_a$  are in consistent units.

From a readily available reference [D'Appolonia et al. (1968) in Fig. 2-9] the following data are available:

$$q = 3 \text{ tsf} \approx 3 \text{ kg/sq cm}$$

SF = 10 (bearing)

SF = 50 (settlement for 2.54 cm based on plate-load tests and the writer's interpretation)

$$k_s = \frac{3}{0.0508} = 59 \text{ kg/cu cm}$$

By Eq. (2-26) the subgrade modulus is computed as

$$k_s = \frac{50(3)}{2.54} = 59 \text{ kg/cu cm}$$

These computations are based on the load test on sand of density approximately  $D_r = 0.85$ .

For cohesive soil the unconfined-compression test may be used in a similar manner. Neglecting the overburden pressure (see Sec. 2-10), we have

$$q_a = \frac{1.2cN_c}{SF} \approx q_u$$

Therefore  $(q_u \text{ in kilograms per square centimeter})$ 

$$k_s = 1.2q_u$$
 kg/cu cm

For piles where the soil surrounds the structural element,  $k_s$  as determined by the methods cited herein should be doubled; thus we obtain for cohesive material

$$k_s = 2.4q_u$$
 kg/cu cm

Terzaghi (1955) has cited the value of

$$k_s = 2.2q_u$$
 kg/cu cm

as a good approximation, or a difference of about 7 percent. Table 2-5 gives some typical values of  $k_s$ .

It is important to obtain the correct value of  $k_s$  to compute deflections. This is equally true for  $E_s$  in any elastic analysis of deflections. To obtain a soil pressure which

Table 2-5 TYPICAL VALUES FOR SUBGRADE MODULUS  $k_s$  FOR SURFACE MEMBERS\*

		$k_s$ , kg/sq cm	
Soil type	Unified classification	Dense	Loose
Gravel, gravelly	GW GP GC GM	15–20 10–20 8–15 5–15	5–10 5–10
Sand, sandy	SW SP SC SM	6–15 5–8 6–15 3–8	.1-3 1-3

Control of the Contro				
	Consistency q <sub>u</sub> , kg/sq cm			
	Soft 0.1-1.0	Medium 1.5–4.0	Hard 4.0 or more	
Clays and silts	3-5q <sub>u</sub>	3-5q <sub>u</sub>	3-5q <sub>u</sub>	

Cohesive soils

<sup>\*</sup> For lateral piles  $k_s$  is approximately 1.5 to 2.0 times the values shown.

can then be compared to a probable maximum or to a reasonable value of soil pressure which the soil can carry, it is recommended that  $k_s$  be used. The true value may be off by as much as a factor of 4 with little effect on computations, as illustrated in subsequent chapters. What is important is to use a method which reflects the soil-structure interaction so that actual soil pressures can be obtained. One can also obtain deflections, but unfortunately with the same limitations as other elastic methods. In the author's opinion, therefore, the subgrade modulus is as valid as the concepts of shear strength or stress-strain modulus and is obtained with about the same degree of precision and difficulty.

#### 2-10 BEARING CAPACITY

The bearing capacity of soils can be determined analytically using Terzaghi's (1943), Hansen's (1970), Meyerhof's (1951), or Balla's (1961) methods, all of which require the soil parameters c and  $\phi$ . The methods of Terzaghi, Meyerhof, and Hansen are quite similar, and only the Hansen equation (1970 version) will be presented here:

$$q_{\rm ult} = cN_c s_c i_c d_c g_c b_c + qN_q s_q i_q d_q g_q b_q + \frac{1}{2} \gamma B N_\gamma s_\gamma i_\gamma d_\gamma g_\gamma b_\gamma \tag{2-27}$$

where  $q_{uit}$  = ultimate soil pressure

 $N_c$  = bearing-capacity factors depending on angle of internal friction  $\phi$  (Table 2-6)

s =shape factors

*i* = inclination factors when foundation loads have horizontal and vertical components

d = depth factors

 $q = \gamma D_f = \textit{effective}$  overburden-pressure effects of soil surrounding footing

B = footing width

 $\gamma$  = unit weight of soil; use submerged unit weight as applicable

Table 2-6 gives the means of computing and representative values of  $N_c$ ,  $N_q$ , and  $N_s$  for selected  $\phi$  values.

Table 2-7 gives values of shape, depth, and inclination factors as proposed by J. B. Hansen (1970).

There is some question of which bearing capacity equations to use. Generally the Hansen equations compute close to Terzaghi's values, with Meyerhof's values higher. A comparison of values by Milović (1965) shows that Hansen's equations

appear best for cohesive soils and that Balla's method is best for soils with little or no cohesion. Balla's method will not be presented here, as it is readily available elsewhere [Bowles (1968)]. The Terzaghi, Meyerhof, and Hansen equations have generally been preferred to the Balla method because they are easier to use. The author does not wish to deemphasize the analytical solution of bearing capacity; however, settlement considerations prevail much of the time.

Through wide usage and satisfactory performance but considered much too conservative, the bearing capacity of cohesionless soils is often based on the SPT value N, as in the following equation, originally proposed in chart form [Terzaghi and Peck (1948)] and revised by the author to a 50 percent increase over the original values:

$$q_a = 0.6(N-3) \left(\frac{B+0.305}{2B}\right)^2 F_d \tag{2-28}$$

where  $q_a$  = allowable bearing pressure, kg/sq cm

B =footing width, m

 $F_d$  = depth factor = 1 + D/B < 2

N = penetration number from a depth approximately B/2 below footing base and corrected for overburden pressure using Fig. 2-4

The original equation recommended correction for the water table, but current evidence indicates that this is unnecessary as N includes the effect of water.

Table 2-6 BEARING-CAPACITY

Equations for use in Eq. (2-27) together with selected values for check purposes

$N_q =$	$K_{\rho} \exp (\pi \tan \phi)$
where $K_p =$	$\tan^2 (45 + \phi/2)$
$N_c =$	$(N_a-1)\cot\phi$
$N_{\nu} =$	$1.80(N_q - 1) \tan \phi$

Typical values				
φ	$N_c$	$N_q$	$N_{\gamma}$	
0	5.14	1.00	0	
10	8.34	2.47	0.47	
30	30.14	18.40	18.08	
40	75.32	64.18	95.14	

Table 2-7 BEARING-CAPACITY FACTORS FOR EQ. (2-27)

#### Shape factors

$$s_c = 1 + 0.2i_c \frac{B}{L}$$

$$s_q = 1 + \frac{Bi_q}{L} \sin \phi$$

$$s_{\gamma} = 1 - \frac{0.4 i_{\gamma} B}{L} \ge 0.6$$

#### Depth factors

$$d_{c} = \begin{cases} 1 + 0.35 \frac{D}{B} & D \leq B \\ 1.4 \tan^{-1} \frac{D}{B} & D > B \end{cases}$$

$$d_q = \begin{cases} 1 + 2 \tan \phi (1 - \sin \phi)^2 \frac{D}{B} & D \le B \\ \\ 1 + 2 \tan \phi (1 - \sin \phi)^2 \tan^{-1} \frac{D}{B} & D > B \end{cases}$$

$$d_{\gamma} = 1.00$$
 all cases

#### Inclination factors\*

$$i_{c} = \begin{cases} 0.5 - 0.5 \sqrt{1 - \frac{H}{A_{f}c}} & \phi = 0 \\ i_{q} - \frac{1 - i_{q}}{N_{q} - 1} & \phi > 0 \end{cases}$$

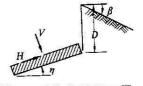
$$i_{\mathbf{q}}^{\dagger} = \left(1 - \frac{0.5H}{V + A_f c \cot \phi}\right)^5$$

$$i_{\gamma^{\dagger}} = \begin{cases} \left(1 - \frac{0.7H}{V + A_f c \cot \phi}\right)^5 & \text{horizontal ground} \\ \left(1 - \frac{0.7H - \eta^{\circ}/450^{\circ}}{V + A_f c \cot \phi}\right)^5 & \text{sloping ground} \end{cases}$$

#### Ground-slope factors‡

$$\dot{g}_c = 1 - \frac{\beta^{\circ}}{147^{\circ}}$$

$$g_q = (1 - 0.5 \tan \beta)^5 = g_{\gamma}$$



# Table 2-7 BEARING-CAPACITY FACTORS FOR EQ. (2-27) (Continued)

#### Base factors‡

$$b_c = 1 - \frac{\eta^{\circ}}{147^{\circ}}$$

$$b_q = \exp\left(-2\eta \tan \phi\right)$$

$$b_{\gamma} = \exp\left(-2.7\eta \tan \phi\right)$$

 $A_f$  = effective footing contact area B'L' L' = effective footing length =  $L - 2e_L$  B' = effective footing width =  $B - 2e_B$   $e_B$ ,  $e_L$  = eccentricity of resultant soil pressure with respect to center of footing area c = cohesion of base soil

 $H,\ V=$  load components parallel and perpendicular to base, respectively

 $\tan \delta = \text{coefficient of friction between footing and underlying soil}$ 

 $\phi$  = angle of internal friction of soil, deg

 $\eta =$  slope of footing, deg

 $\beta$  = slope of ground surface, deg

SOURCE: Hansen (1970).

NOTE: L and B are interchangeable (in computing the effective footing width) depending on location of load eccentricity.

\* Limitation  $H \leq V \tan \delta + cA_f$ .

† Note  $i_{\eta}$  and  $i_{q} > 0.0$ .

‡ Limitations for g and h factors:  $\eta$  and  $\beta$  (+) as shown;  $\eta + \beta \leq 90^{\circ}$ .

In cohesive soils the use of unconfined-compression test data is widespread to obtain the bearing capacity as follows. Assume a square footing

$$N_c = 5.14$$
  $N_q = 1.00$   $N_{\gamma} = 0.0$  (Table 2-6)

also

$$s_c = 1.2$$
  $d_c = 1 + \frac{0.35D}{R}$ 

and take D/B = 1.0

$$c = \frac{q_u}{2}$$

Now substituting into Eq. (2-27) and neglecting the  $\frac{1}{2}\gamma N_{\gamma}$  term

$$q_{\text{ult}} = \frac{1.2(5.14)(1.35)q_u}{2} + qD_f$$

we obtain

$$q_{\rm ult} \approx 3q_u + qD_f$$

It is usual practice with cohesive (clay) soils to take the allowable soil pressure as one-third of ultimate (SF = 3) soil pressure as computed by the various methods, e.g., Eq. (2-27), obtaining the allowable soil bearing pressure as approximately

$$q_a = \frac{q_{ult}}{3} = q_u$$

and neglecting  $qD_1/3$ .

# 2-11 SAFETY FACTORS IN BEARING CAPACITY AND SUBGRADE MODULUS

It is considered normal practice to compute the allowable bearing pressure from the ultimate bearing capacity using a safety factor as follows:

Soil or load condition	SF	
Cohesionless soils	2,0	
Cohesive soils	3.0	
For transient loads such as wind, earthquake, certain live loads	2.0	
Dead loads or long-time live loads	2 or 3, depending on soil type	
Settlements	1.5-3 designer prerogative	

It may be questioned whether applying safety factors to the cohesion and angle of internal friction separately might be more appropriate. Current favored practice is to compute the ultimate soil pressure and divide by the selected safety factor.

The equation given for allowable soil pressure based on the penetration number [Eq. (2-28)] tacitly assumes a SF > 1 and a maximum settlement of 2.5-cm (1 in).

It is inappropriate to apply a safety factor to the soil modulus. The soil modulus is essentially a "spring" concept, and you either have one or not. Dividing by 1.5, 2.0, etc., simply makes the deflection response different. A safety factor is applied in problems using this concept by inspection of the resulting soil pressures and comparing to allowable values or on some other rational engineering basis.

### 2-12 ELASTIC (OR IMMEDIATE) SETTLEMENTS

Soil being a pseudo-elastic<sup>1</sup> material, it has some movements associated with stress increases. All the deformation is elastic-plastic, but most people compute (or estimate) the settlement using the theory of elasticity of a body on the surface of a homogeneous

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In the sense that it deforms somewhat proportionally under load but little of the deformation is recoverable.

$$S = \mu_1 \mu_2 q B \frac{1 - \mu^2}{E_s} \tag{2-29}$$

where

S = settlement(L)

 $q = \text{contact pressure } (FL^{-2})$ 

B = width of surface body (L)

 $\mu$  = Poisson's ratio (Table 2-2)

 $E_s = \text{stress-strain modulus of soil } (FL^{-2})$ 

 $\mu_1$ ,  $\mu_2$  = influence factors based on L/B, stratum thickness, and footing depth (Fig. 2-10)

The major limitations of Eq. (2-29) are determinations of  $E_s$  and the fact that soils tend to be anisotropic more often than isotropic. Equation (2-29) tends to yield the correct order of magnitude of settlement in spite of these limitations.

Lambe (1964) proposed that the settlement could be analyzed simply as

$$S = \int_0^H \varepsilon \, dz \tag{2-30}$$

The procedure is as follows. Replace the integral with a summation across several increments of the total stratum thickness (as  $\Delta H$ ) and compute the average strain in each thickness increment as

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\text{average stress increase in increment}}{\text{average } E_{\text{s}} \text{ in increment}}$$

Next compute the incremental deformation as

$$S_i = H_i \varepsilon_i$$

and sum the number of increments taken.

De Beer (1967) indicates that settlements can be calculated which average (mean) about twice as high as observed settlements using the cone-penetration-test data. This is done by obtaining a coefficient C as

$$C = \frac{3}{2} \frac{C_R}{p_0} \tag{2-31}$$

where  $p_0$  is the overburden pressure at cone-point elevation in kilograms per square centimeter, and using a modification of the consolidation equation (2-7):

$$S = \int_0^H \frac{1}{C} 2.3 \log \frac{p_0 + \Delta p}{p_0}$$
 (2-32)

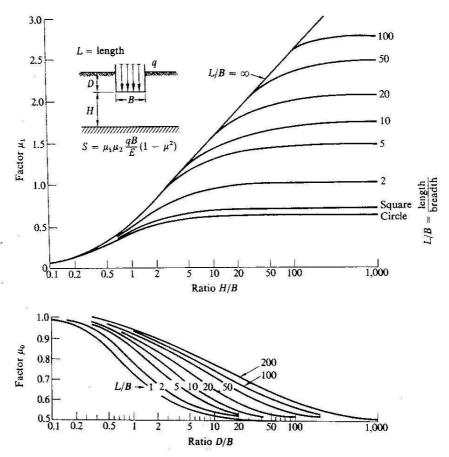


FIGURE 2-10 Influence factors for use in the elastic (immediate) settlement equation. [After Janbu et al. (1966).]

Several factors complicate settlement computations:

1 The stress-strain modulus varies with depth for nearly all soils. For any homogeneous isotropic soil layer

$$E_s \approx E_0 + Az^n$$

where z is depth and n is the exponential power.

2 The depth of increased stresses depends on the size of the footing and loads and can be taken as mB, where m is somewhere between 1 and 2.5.

3 It is difficult to evaluate the average increase in stress in a soil stratum due to an applied load on a footing. The Boussinesq and Westergaard equations have been used, as well as a 2 vertical to 1 horizontal spread of pressure [see Bowles (1968), chap. 2]. Influence charts have been made for selected cases to obtain pressure with depth.

Now considering a case of 2:1 pressure, a square footing, and the other cited factors (refer to Fig. 2-11), the average pressure within a depth mB is

$$\Delta q = \frac{1}{mB} \int_0^{mB} \frac{\sigma_0 B^2}{(B+z)^2} dz$$

Integration yields

$$\Delta q = \frac{\sigma_0}{1+m}$$

From Eq. (2-30) the average strain is the average stress divided by the average  $E_s$ . The average stress-strain modulus is

$$E_s = \frac{1}{mB} \int_0^{mB} (E_0 + Az^n) dz = \frac{(n+1)E_0 + A(mB)^n}{n+1}$$

and the settlement is

$$S = \Delta q \, \frac{mB}{E_s}$$

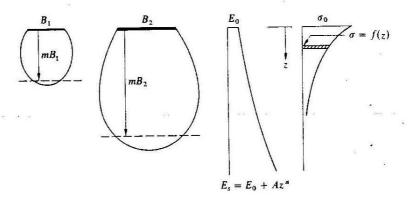


FIGURE 2-11

Relationship of influence of footing size on depth of stress increase. If poor soil exists below depth  $mB_1$ , plate-load-test data would be in error. Also shown is probable variation of stress-strain modulus  $E_s$  with depth. The exponent n may be greater or less than 1.0. Variation of stress due to footing load can be analyzed using a Boussinesq or 2:1 slope.

Substituting gives

$$S = \frac{n+1}{m+1} \frac{\sigma_0 mB}{(n+1)E_0 + A(mB)^n}$$

The settlement of two footings of widths  $B_1$ ,  $B_2$  and the same contact pressure  $\sigma_0$  would be in the ratio of

$$\frac{S_1}{S_2} = \frac{(n+1)E_0 + A(mB_2)^n}{(n+1)E_0 + A(mB_1)^n} \frac{mB_1}{mB_2}$$
 (2-33)

An approximation used in lieu of an equation of the form of Eq. (2-33) for  $B_1 = 1$  ft is

$$\cdot \frac{S_1}{S_2} \approx \left(\frac{B_1 + 1}{2B}\right)^2$$

Considerable evidence [D'Appolonia et al. (1968); de Beer (1967) with references; Meyerhof (1965)] indicates that this latter approximation is just that and may be unconservative in many cases. Equations of the form of Eq. (2-33), however, are not overly conservative, but  $E_0$ , A, m, and n present considerable difficulty.

#### 2-13 THE INTERNATIONAL SYSTEM OF METRIC UNITS

At the time of writing (1972) all the countries in the world except the United States and Canada have already converted to the metric system of engineering units (or are in the process). This Système International d'Unités (SI) will be referred to herein as the metric system. Units and conversion factors are included as it is expected that the United States and Canada will be at least started on conversion to the SI units during the useful life of the text. The engineering system now in use in the United States and Canada will be referred to as the fps (foot-pound-second) system.

The metric standard of length is the meter, 1,000 millimeters (mm). The conversion to fps length is

Since the metric units are multiples of 10, one obtains

Unit	Number of millimeters	
Millimeter (mm)	1	
Centimeter (cm) = 10 mm	10	
Decimeter (dm) = 10 cm	100	
Meter = 10 dm = 100 cm	1,000	
Kilometer = 1,000 m	10 <sup>6</sup>	

The cgs units of force is the dyne. A dyne is that force acting on a body of 1 gram mass which will accelerate it I centimeter per second per second.

$$1 \text{ dyne} = 1 \text{ g-cm/s}^2$$

since

Weight = mg

and g = 32.17 ft/sec<sup>2</sup> or 980.7 cm/sec<sup>2</sup>, one obtains

1 gram weight = 1 g  $\times$  980.7 cm/sec<sup>2</sup> = 980.7 dyn

A newton (N) is the force which acting on a body of mass of 1 kilogram will accelerate it 1 m/sec2.

1 newton = 1 kg-m/sec<sup>2</sup> = 1,000 g 
$$\times$$
 100 cm/sec<sup>2</sup> = 10<sup>5</sup> dyn

1 kilonewton (kN) = 1,000 N

1 meganewton (MN) = 1,000 kN

Critical metric units used in this text are:

fps	Metric	
square inch (sq in)	sq cm	
square foot (sq ft)	sq cm or sq m	
kips/square inch (ksi)	kg/sq cm or kN/sq m	
kips/square foot (ksf)	kg/sq cm or kN/sq m	
kips/cubic foot (kcf) kg/cu cm or kf		

Table 2-8 presents useful factors to convert from fps to metric units and shows values of fps, cgs, and SI units. Commonly used units are kg/sq cm and kN/sq m for pressure and g/cu cm and kN/cu m for unit weights. The context or usage generally indicates whether force or mass units are to be used.

Several useful conversions are as follows:

29,600 ksi = 2,081,200 kg/sq cm = 204,103,300 kN/sq m

3,250 ksi = 2,240.6 kN/sq cm = 2,240,610 kN/sq m

3,000 psi = 211 kg/sq cm = 20,700 kN/sq m

62.5 pcf = 1 g/cu cm = 9.807 kN/cu m

0.144 kcf = 22.62 kN/cu m

1 kip = 4.4475 kN

Table 2-8 CONVERSION FACTORS\*

To convert from To		Multiply by	
	Length		
inch	centimeter (cm)	2.54	
foot	centimeter (cm)	30.48	
	meter (m)		
mile	kilometer (km)	1.609	
	Area	(d) (d)	
sq inch	sq cm	6.451	
sq foot	sq cm	929.03	
<b>-1</b>	sq m	0.092903	
**************************************	Volume	**************************************	
cu inch	cu cm	16,38706	
cu foot	cu m	0.0283169	
gal (U.S.)	cu m	0.003785	
Bu. (0.5.)	liter	3.785	
SC 200 FN 30-30-00	Force		
gram force	dyne	980.7	
kilogram force (kg,)	newton (N)	9,807	
pound force (lb <sub>f</sub> )	kilogram force (kg,)	0.4535924	
kips (1,000 lb <sub>t</sub> )	newton	4,447,4735	
Mps (1,000 .0])	kilonewton (kN)	4,44747	
kips/ft	kN/m	14.59136	
kips/in	kN/cm	1.751	
	Pressure or stress (force area)	F 10 - 10 - 10 - 10	
kalea m	N/co m	0.907	
kg/sq m	N/sq m	9.807	
kg/sq cm	ton/sq m	10.0	
	kN/sq cm	0.009807	
Ising/og in Cleai)	kN/sq m	98.07	
kips/sq in (ksi)	kN/sq cm	0.689428	
20	kg/sq cm	70.31	
1	kN/sq m	6,894.28	
kips/sq ft (ksf)	kg/sq cm	0.4882	
	ton/sq m	4.882	
Annual Control of the Annual Control of the Control	kN/sq m	47.87777	
lb/sq in (psi)	N/sq m	6,894.28	
(D)	kg/sq cm	0.07031	
The magnitude temporary transport	Bending moment, or torque	8.5	
inch-pound	meter-kilogram force (m-kg <sub>f</sub> )	0.0152	
	newton-meter (N-m)	0.1130	
foot-kips	meter-ton (M-T)	0.138255	
	kN-m	1.3556	
foot-pound	$(M-kg_{\ell})$	0.138255	
-	N-m	1.3556	

Table 2-8 CONVERSION FACTORS (Continued)

	Mass per unit volume	
lb/cu ft	kg/cu m	16.01846
	g/cu cm	0.01601846
	ton/cu m	0.01601846
kips/cu ft	ton/cu m	16.01846
	kN/cu m	157.09304
g/cu cm	lb/cu ft	62,4279
	kN/cu m	9.807
lb/gal (U.S.)	kg/cu m	119.8
	Inertia	
in⁴	cm <sup>4</sup>	41.62
cm <sup>4</sup>	m <sup>4</sup>	$1 \times 10^{-8}$
ft <sup>4</sup>	m <sup>4</sup>	0.00836097

<sup>\*</sup> Foot-pound-second (U.S. customary) to metric units; 1 kilonewton = 1 × 10<sup>3</sup> N; 1 meganewton =  $1 \times 10^6$  N; 1 ton = 1,000 kg.

#### **PROBLEMS**

2-1 Some people advocate that

$$C_c = c(e_0 - d)$$

Make a search of the literature and find as many values of c and d as possible for various geographical locations. Be sure to cite the reference source.

- 2-2 Perform a laboratory test to obtain triaxial-test data using a cell pressure of 10 psi. Find  $E_s$  and use the method proposed by Lambe (1964) to compute the expected settlement of a footing 10 × 10 ft loaded with 300 kips on a sand layer 15 ft thick. Make a comparison of settlements using your  $E_s$ , a reasonable value of Poisson's ratio, and Fig. 2-10.
- 2-3 From references cited, make a study of the validity of an equation of the form of Eq. (2-33).
- 2-4 Make a table of bearing-capacity factors for each degree of angle of internal friction from 0 to 50°.
- 2-5 It may be possible to make curves for shape, depth, and inclination factors once and for all; if so make the appropriate plots.
- 2-6 Make a table listing the advantages and disadvantages of the SPT, cone penetrometers, and the vane shear test.

2-7 Using the plate-load-test data herein or other data, refer to Terzaghi and Peck (1948, p. 422) for the settlement equation

$$S = S_1 \left(\frac{2B}{B+1}\right)^2$$

where B = footing width

 $S_1$  = settlement of 30.5  $\times$  30.5 cm plate

S = settlement of footing of width B

and with reference to Douglas Bond, The Influence of Foundation Size on Settlement, Geotech., vol. 11, no. 2, June, 1961, pp. 121-143, and D'Appolonia et al. (1968), make an attempt to obtain an equation which will better describe S = f(B). Note that you may have to use more terms S = f(B, E, ?, ?, ?).

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# ELEMENTS OF STRUCTURAL DESIGN: SPREAD FOOTINGS, COMBINED FOOTINGS

#### 3-1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the elements of reinforced-concrete design of simple spread footings and the conventional design methods of combined footings. Concrete design is based on strength (or ultimate-strength) design of the ACI 318-71 Building Code Requirements for Reinforced Concrete. Discussion will be brief since it is assumed that the reader has had a course in reinforced-concrete design.

Elements of reinforced concrete applicable to footings will be introduced: Sec. 3-3 considers simple spread footings, Sec. 3-7 combined footings, and Sec. 3-9 trapezoid footings. Spread footings with eccentricity will be considered in Chap. 7 along with mat foundations.

#### Notation

To assist the reader, the following notation, generally complying with the ACI 318-71 Code, will be used throughout. Any other notation will be identified where used.

```
A = \text{area}, BL
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 $A_b$  = area of any steel reinforcing bar (rebar)

 $A_a = \text{gross area of concrete, bd}$ 

 $A_s$  = area of steel/unit of width (also total amount required)

b =width of concrete element

B =least lateral dimension of footing, usually width

d = effective depth of concrete

D = total footing depth (also used to indicate bar diameters)

DL =dead load (working-design value)

 $E_c = \text{modulus of elasticity of concrete}$ 

 $E_{r} = \text{modulus of elasticity of steel}$ 

 $f_c' = 28$ -day compressive concrete strength (F1C in computer programs)

 $f_{\nu}$  = yield strength of steel reinforcement

L =footing length

 $L_d$  = required embedment depth for rebars, tension or compression

LL = live load (working-design value)

 $M_{u}$  = bending moment (strength design)

m = small-end width of trapezoid footing

 $n = \text{modular ratio } E_s/E_c$ ; large-end width of trapezoid footing

 $p = percent reinforcement steel = A_s/bd$ 

 $p_b$  = percent reinforcement steel at balanced design

 $q_a$  = allowable soil pressure (also used as q in text for certain equations)

 $q_{vir} = \text{product of allowable soil pressure and load factor}$ 

 $T = \text{tensile steel force} = A_{s}f_{y}$ 

u =concrete bond stress

v =concrete shear stress (may be subscripted)

w = column width (or diameter if round column)

 $\phi$  = concrete workmanship factors (also angle of internal friction)

 $\psi$  = bond stress factor

## 3-2 REINFORCED-CONCRETE DESIGN FOR FOOTINGS (ACI 318-71)

The latest (1971) revision of the ACI Standard Building Code Requirements for Reinforced Concrete places major emphasis on strength design, the only method considered in this text.

Strength design entails converting design working loads to design ultimate loads through the use of load factors as:

$$P_u = 1.4DL + 1.7LL \tag{a}$$

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$$P_{u} = 1.25(DL + LL + WL) \quad \text{with wind}$$
 (b)

$$P_u = 0.9DL + 1.1WL$$
 alternative with wind (c)

where  $P_u$  = ultimate strength-design load

WL = wind loading

For earthquake loading substitute EL for WL as applicable.

Strength design also considers workmanship and other uncertainties by use of  $\phi$  factors, which are applied to increase the design requirements as follows:

Design quantity	$\phi$ factor	
Moment	0.90	
Diagonal tension, bond, and anchorage	0.85	
Compression members, spiral	0.75	
Tied	0.70	
Unreinforced footings (bending)	0.65	

The concrete strain at ultimate stress (strength) is taken as 0.003 in/in. Generally the yield strength  $f_y$  of the reinforcing steel is not to exceed 80,000 psi without additional design consideration (ACI, art. 9.4). Reinforcing steel of  $f_y = 60,000$  psi appears to be the most popular grade at present (1973).

#### Basic Design Elements

Considering a section of a concrete flexural member (Fig. 3-1) and summing horizontal forces ( $\sum F_h = 0$ ), we have C = T; also let the working concrete stress be  $0.85f_c^r$ . But  $C = f_c ab$ , and from the figure,  $T = A_s f_y$ . Substituting and solving for a gives

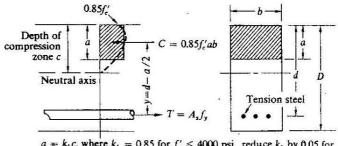
$$a = \frac{A_s f_y}{0.85 f_c' b} \tag{3-1}$$

Equating the internal resisting moment M = Ty = Cy to the external applied ultimate moment  $M_u$ 

$$M_y = Ty = Cy$$

and substituting  $T = A_s f_y$  and the value of y = d - a/2, we obtain

$$M_u = A_s f_y \left( d - \frac{a}{2} \right)$$



 $a = k_1 c$ , where  $k_1 = 0.85$  for  $f'_c \le 4000$  psi reduce  $k_1$  by 0.05 for each 1000 over 4000 psi

(a)

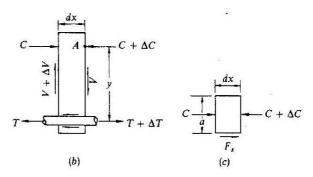


FIGURE 3-1 Derivation of strength-design equations for reinforced concrete: (a) flexural stress condition; use rectangular stress block; (b) development of bond; (c) development of shear.

Inserting the recommended workmanship factor for uncertainties gives the ACI Code design equation of

$$M_{u} = \phi A_{s} f_{y} \left( d - \frac{a}{2} \right) \tag{3-2}$$

The percentage of steel at a cross section of a flexural member is  $p = A_s/bd$ , and the percent at balanced design is  $p_b$ . To ensure a tensile failure rather than a sudden compression-zone failure the design percentage of steel  $p_d$  is taken as not more than 0.75p<sub>b</sub>, where

$$p_b = \frac{0.85k_1f'_c}{f_y} \frac{87,000}{f_y + 87,000} \tag{d}$$

Table 3-1 provides maximum percent of steel to use in design  $(0.75p_b)$  for various combinations of  $f'_c$  and  $f_y$ .

If compression steel is required, the reader should consult any standard textbook on reinforced-concrete design or the ACI (318-71) Code, art. 10.3, as several design requirements must be met.

Next consider Fig. 3-1b and sum moments at point A as a convenience

$$(V_u + \Delta V_u) dx - \Delta Ty = 0 (e)$$

but

$$\Delta T = V_u \, dx \sum o$$

with  $\sum o$  taken as the sum of the bar perimeters of the tension steel. Dropping second-order differentials and including the  $\phi$  factor, we obtain for bond stresses

$$u = \frac{V_u}{\phi y \sum o} \tag{3-3}$$

The current ACI Code, however, considers an alternative to Eq. (3-3) by specifying the embedment length  $L_d$  of reinforcing bars in tension (art. 12-5) and in compression (art. 12.6) rather than in terms of bond stress.

In tension the basic development length  $L_d$  is:

	$\frac{0.04A_bf_y}{\sqrt{f_c'}}$	-	0.0004 <i>Df</i> ,
٠	$\frac{0.085f_s}{\sqrt{f_a'}}$		
	$\frac{0.11f_y}{\sqrt{f_c'}}$	8	V 9 8
		$\frac{0.04A_bf_y}{\sqrt{f_o'}}$ $\frac{0.085f_y}{\sqrt{f_o'}}$	$\frac{0.04A_bf_y}{\sqrt{f_c'}}  \text{but not less than}$ $\frac{0.085f_y}{\sqrt{f_c'}}$

Table 3-1 MAXIMUM ALLOWABLE PERCENT OF STEEL\*

$f_c'$ , psi (kg/sq cm)		$f_y$ , psi (kg/sq cm)			
	$k_1$	45,000 (3,164)	50,000 (3,515)	60,000 (4,219)	
3,000(211)	0.850	0.0278	0.0206	0.0160	
3,500(246)	0.850	0.0325	0.0241	0.0187	
4,000(281)	0.850	0.0371	0.0275	0.0214	
4,500(316)	0.800	0.0393	0,0291	0.0226	
5,000(352)	0.800	0.0437	0.0324	0.0252	
5,500(387)	0.750	0.0450	0.0334	0.0259	
6,000(422)	0.750	0.0491	0.0364	0.0283	

<sup>\*</sup> Table includes 25 percent reduction for bending using strength design ACI 318-71, art. 8.1. Note that  $k_1$  is reduced for  $f'_c > 4$  ksi.

For top reinforcement (if there is more than 12 in of concrete beneath the bar) multiply  $L_d$  from above as follows:

Conditions	Factor	
For bars of $f_y < 60,000$ psi	1.4	
For bars of $f_y > 60,000$ psi	$2-\frac{60,000}{f_y}$	
In all cases (top or bottom)	L > 12  in	

This operation allows for some consolidation of the fresh concrete away from beneath the top rebars, with the resulting loss of bonding.

For no. 11 and smaller rebars the expression for  $L_d$  tabulated above is obtained (see Fig. 3-2) as follows. Equate tension force to bond resistance

$$A_b f_y = \phi u \pi D L_d$$

but the bond stress

$$u = \psi \frac{\sqrt{f_c'}}{D}$$

For top bars  $\psi = 6.7$ , and for other bars  $\psi = 9.5$ . Substituting  $\psi = 9.5$  and solving for  $L_d$ , we obtain

$$L_{\rm d} \approx \frac{0.04 A_b f_y}{\sqrt{f_c'}}$$

Standard hooks can be used to reduce the required value of  $L_d$  but are not required in most footing problems. Consult ACI, art. 12.8 if  $L_d$  must be reduced.

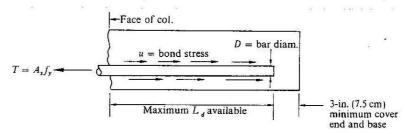


FIGURE 3-2 Derivation of embedment depth  $L_d$  for steel reinforcement, top and bottom bars. Bottom bar shown.

For compression bars the development length is

$$L_d = \frac{0.02 f_y D}{\sqrt{f_c'}}$$

but not less than  $0.0003f_yD$  or 8 in. The development length may be reduced in certain cases, for example, 25 percent when the bars are enclosed in spirals of not less than no. 2 rebar size and the spiral pitch is not over 4 in (see ACI, art. 12.6).

For shear, consider that the compression stresses are zero at the neutral axis; therefore, inspection of Fig. 3-1c indicates that the maximum shear stress can be evaluated from summing horizontal forces

$$C + F_s - C - \Delta C = 0$$

but

$$F_s = b(dx)v_u$$

and from Eq. (e), neglecting the second-order differential  $dx \Delta V_u$ ,

$$\Delta T y = V_{\mu} dx$$

From Fig. 3-1

$$\Delta C = \Delta T$$

and equating  $F_s = \Delta \dot{C}$ , we obtain

$$b(dx)v_u = V_u \frac{dx}{v}$$

Solving for the shear stress and including the  $\phi$  factor, we have

$$v_u = \frac{V_u}{\phi y b}$$

Research indicates [Report ACI-ASCE Committee (1962)] that enough uncertainty exists to replace the distance y with the effective concrete depth to obtain the design equation

$$v_u = \frac{V_u}{\phi b d} \tag{3-4}$$

The allowable design shear stress without the use of shear reinforcement (the usual case for footings) is

$$v_d \leq 2\phi\sqrt{f_c'}$$

(see also Table 3-2). This stress is usually termed beam shear, or in the case of footings wide-beam shear. The controlling condition for square footings and often other types of footings is diagonal-tension shear. The design value of diagonal-tension stress (ACI Code, art. 11.10.3) is

$$v_d \leq 4\phi\sqrt{f_c'}$$

The bearing pressure exerted by the column on the footing may be a critical factor in controlling the depth, especially if the column concrete has a much higher compressive stress  $f_c$  than the footing. The column contact stresses are not to exceed  $0.85f_c'$  of the footing unless the supporting surface (footing or pedestal) is larger than the column (ACI, art. 10.14). If the supporting surface is larger than the column (see Fig. 3-3), the allowable contact stress can be computed as

$$f_c \le 0.85 \phi f_c' \sqrt{\frac{A_2}{A_1}}$$

but the ratio of  $\sqrt{A_2/A_1}$  cannot exceed 2. Use 0.70 for the  $\phi$  factor.

A footing may be designed with no tensile reinforcement if the flexural stresses do not exceed

$$f_t \le 5\phi\sqrt{f_c'}$$
 strength design

and the shear stresses meet the requirements already given (ACI, art. 15.7). Note, however, that shrinkage and temperature reinforcement (ACI, art. 7.13) should always be used.

Metric conversion factors for equations presented in this chapter are listed in Sec. 3-11.

Table 3-2 ALLOWABLE WIDE-BEAM AND DIAGONAL-TENSION SHEAR BY ACI 318-

	$f_c$ , psi (kg/sq cm)			
	3,000 (211)	3,500 (246)	4,000 (281)	5,000 (352)
Wide beam $2\phi \sqrt{f'_e}$ : psi (kg/sq cm) ksf (kN/sq m)	93.1(6.5) 13.41(642)	100.6(7.1) 14.49(694)	107.5(7.6) 15.48(741)	120.2(8.5) 17.31(829)
Diagonal tension $4\phi\sqrt{f_c}$ : psi (kg/sq cm) ksf (kN/sq m)	186.2(13.1) 26.81(1,283.7)	201.1(14.1) 28.96(1,386.4)	214.0(15.0) 30.96(1,475.4)	240.4(17.0) 34.62(1,657.4)

 $\phi = 0.85$ 

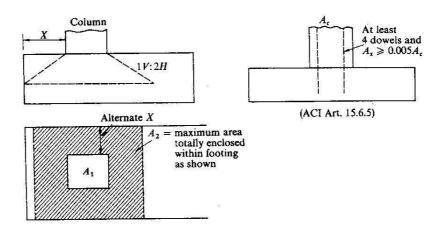


FIGURE 3-3 Method of determining allowable column pressure on footing and minimum column-dowel requirements.

#### 3-3 SPREAD-FOOTING DESIGN

Table 3-3 summarizes the pertinent sections of the ACI 318-71 Code most generally applicable to footing (and foundation) design.

The first step is to obtain the lateral dimensions of the footing, one of which may occasionally be given if the footing cannot be made square. For square footings, the lateral dimension B is

$$B = \frac{\sum \text{(working loads)}}{\text{allowable soil pressure}}$$

This value of B is usually rounded to the nearest larger 0.25 ft (say 7.5 cm) as a practical field construction practice.

With the footing dimension established, the ultimate soil pressure (for computational purposes only) is found as

$$q_{\rm ult} = \frac{P_{\rm ult}}{B^2}$$

This value of soil pressure will be used in Eqs. (3-5) and (3-6) to obtain the footing thickness. Note that  $P_{uk}$  does not include the estimated weight of the footing for three reasons: (1) the side dimension B is generally rounded upward slightly; (2) the footing will displace its own volume of soil, resulting in a net increase in the difference in soil and concrete unit weights multiplied by the footing depth, which will rarely amount to

Table 3-3 SUMMARY OF MOST COMMON FOOTING REQUIREMENTS ACI 318-71

Design factor	ACI Code article	General requirements
Spacing of reinforcement	7.4	Not less than $D$ or 1 in or 1.33 (max aggregate size); not more than $3 \times \text{depth}$ of footing or 18 in
Lap splices	7.5.2	Not for bars > no. 11
In tension	7.6	See section in Code
In compression	7.7	See section in Code
Temperature Shrinkage	7.13 10.5,2	$p = \begin{cases} 0.002 & \text{for } f_y = 40 \text{ to } 50 \text{ ksi} \\ 0.0018 & \text{for } f_y = 60 \text{ ksi or welded} \\ & \text{wire fabric} \end{cases}$
Minimum reinforcement cover	7.14	3 in against earth
Design methods flexure	8.1	$M_{u} = \phi A_{s} f_{y}[(d-a)/2]$
		$a = A_s f_p / 0.85 f_c b$
Maximum reinforcement	10.3.2	$p_d = 0.75 \times \text{Eq.}(d)$
		$p = A_s/bd \le p_d$
Minimum reinforcement	10.5.1	$p \ge 200/f_y$ , if footing of variable thickness; for slabs of uniform thickness use shrinkage and temperature percentage
$k_1$ factor	10.2.7	$k_1 = \begin{cases} 0.85 & \text{for } f_c \leq 4,000 \text{ psi} \\ 0.85 - 0.05 & \text{for each } 1,000 \text{ psi} \\ \text{over } 4,000 \text{ psi} \end{cases}$
Limits of compression reinforcement	10.9	$0.01 \leq A_{st}/A_g \leq 0.08$
Modulus of elasticity	8.3	$E = w^{1.5}33\sqrt{f'_c} \text{ psi for } w \text{ between 90 and } 155 \text{ pcf}$
		$E_c = 57,000\sqrt{f_c'}$ psi for $w = 140$ to 150 pcf
		$E_{\rm s} = 29,000,000 \text{ psi}$
		Take $n = E_s/E_c$ to nearest integer > 6
Load factors	0.0	
φ	9.2	Flexure = 0.90; shear = 0.85; bearing = 0.70; flexure plain concrete = 0.65
		(Continued)

(Continued)

Table 3-3 SUMMARY OF MOST COMMON FOOTING REQUIREMENTS ACI 318-71 (Continued)

Design factor	ACI Code article	General requirements
Load	9.3.1	1.4 × dead load; 1.7 × live load
Bearing	10.14	$q_{\text{brg}} \le R0.85 \phi f_{\text{c}}'$ (see Fig. 3-3) $R \le 2$
Shear, wide-beam	11.10.1 <i>a</i> 11.2.1 11.4.1	$v_u = V_u/bd$ $v_c = 2\phi\sqrt{f_c'}$
Diagonal (punch) tension	11.10.1 <i>b</i>	$v_u = V_u/bd$ $v_c = 4\phi\sqrt{f_c'}$
Shear reinforcement	11.11.1	For footings only 50% effective
Development of reinforcement	12.5 12.6	See general requirements and values given in text earlier
Grade beams	14.3–15.10	
Footings	15.1	General footing considerations
Location of bending moments	15.4.2	See Fig. 3-5
Distribution of reinforcing in rectangular footings	15,4.4	Percent in zone of width $B = 2/[L/(B+1)]$
Shear	15.5 11.10,1 <i>a</i> 11.10.1 <i>b</i>	See Fig. 3-4
Transfer of stress at base of column	15.6.5 10.14.1	At least 4 dowels with total $A_s \ge 0.005A_g$
Unreinforced pedestals	15.7	$f_c = 0.85 \phi f_c'$ $\phi = 0.70$
2		$f_t = 5\phi\sqrt{f_c'} \qquad \phi = 0.65$
Round columns	15.8	Equivalent square column side, $a = \sqrt{A_c}$
Minimum edge thickness	15.9	8 in for unreinforced footing; 6 in above reinforcement
Maximum tensile stress in unreinforced footings	15.7.2	$f_t \le 5 \phi \sqrt{f_a'} \qquad \phi = 0.65$

over 100 lb/sq ft; (3) the allowable bearing pressure is not known to a precision of more than about  $\pm 300$  lb/sq ft.

Since shear or diagonal-tension strength is relatively low, this usually controls the design of spread footings. That is, one finds the depth to satisfy shear without using shear reinforcement, then computes the steel requirements for bending and checks column bearing if required. If dowels are required to transfer part of the column stresses to the footing, the footing depth is checked for adequacy of dowel transfer action.

Since the design is controlled by the footing depth and the depth usually depends on diagonal tension, it is desirable to obtain an expression for footing depth once and for all. Referring to Fig. 3-4b, the perimeter for a square column is 4(w + d), and the area enclosed by this perimeter is  $(w + d)^2$ . With the soil pressure on the base of the footing as

$$q = \frac{P_u}{BL}$$

the desired expression can be obtained by summing vertical forces on the diagonaltension zone shown in Fig. 3-4b

$$P_u - P' - dv_c$$
 (perimeter) = 0

Substituting and rearranging gives

$$4v_n(w+d) + q(w+d)^2 = P_u$$

Simplifying, we obtain the desired expression for square columns as

$$d^{2}\left(v_{c} + \frac{q}{4}\right) + d\left(v_{c} + \frac{q}{2}\right)w = \frac{(BL - w^{2})q}{4}$$
 (3-5)

For round columns (use diam = w) the applicable equation becomes

$$d^{2}\left(v_{c} + \frac{q}{4}\right) + d\left(v_{c} + \frac{q}{2}\right)w = \frac{(BL - A_{col})q}{\pi}$$
(3-6)

These two quadratic equations for footing depth are used in the computer program included in this chapter.

One should not convert a round column to an equivalent square column to use Eq. (3-5) instead of Eq. (3-6). The use of an equivalent square column instead of the actual column diameter will give an unsafe difference in computed depth, which can be considerable, depending on the column dimensions and loads. The included

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> It is usual practice, both as an economy and to ensure reasonable footing rigidity, not to use shear reinforcement in footings

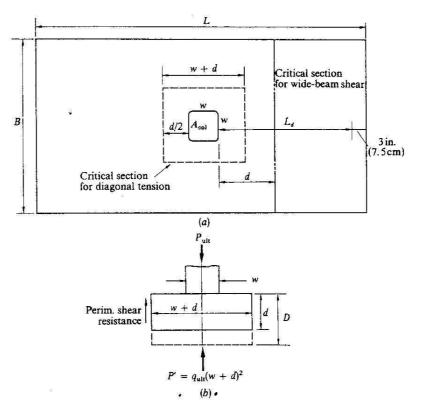


FIGURE 3-4 Critical sections for shear. For round columns use w = diameter. (a) Furnished  $L_d$  and critical sections for shear computations. (b) Obtaining depth for diagonal tension.

computer program considers either round or square columns to compute the correct footing depth.

For baseplates, which may be rectangular, the computer program is not programmed to work for a steel column on a rectangular baseplate directly. One may use the program, however, and obtain a conservative footing depth by taking the smaller of the two baseplate dimensions corrected by the distance X of Fig. 3-5 as the column width w. The depth will be somewhat less conservative using

$$w = \sqrt{\text{area of baseplate}}$$

Once the effective footing depth d is established, the next step is to compute the required area of steel to satisfy bending requirements. Rearranging Eq. (3-2) results

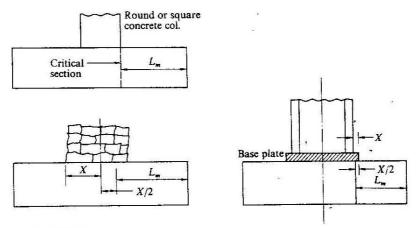
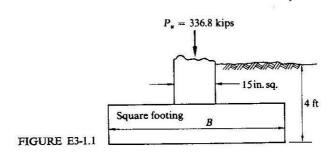


FIGURE 3-5 Critical sections for computing bending moments (ACI, art. 15.4).

in a quadratic equation in  $A_s$ . Figure 3-5 indicates the critical sections for bendingmoment computations for several types of footing load. Taking  $L_m$  as an equivalent cantilever beam, the ultimate moment is computed as  $M_u = q_{ult} L_m^2/2$ . Bond stresses are indirectly checked by computing the required embedment length  $L_d$  and comparing this value to the length actually available (see Fig. 3-2 for maximum available length).

Column bearing stresses are checked according to ACI, art. 10.14 (see Fig. 3-3); however, in any case a minimum of four dowels with a total area of not less than  $0.005A_c$  must be provided.

EXAMPLE 3-1 Design a square spread footing for the conditions shown in Fig. E3-1.1.



Other data:

$$f_c' = 4 \text{ ksi}$$
  $f_y = 60 \text{ ksi}$   $q_a = 4 \text{ ksi}$   
 $DL = 124 \text{ kips}$   $LL = 96 \text{ kips}$   $\text{col} = 15 \text{ in}$ 

This example is also worked using the included computer program so that the reader can compare the two solutions. The computer input consists of four data cards, as follows:

Card	Data				
1	TITLE (see Fig. E3-1.2)				
120	UT1~UT8				
2	FT IN KIPS FT-KIPS KIPS/SQ FT KIPS/CU FT LB/SQ IN SQ IN				
3	15. 0. 60000. 4000. 0.0 4.0 124.0 196.0				
	NBAR (number of reinforcing bars on DATA USBAR/···/)				
4	9				
No. 10000000000	MAN TO SELECT THE SELE				

The output is shown in Fig. E3-1.2 along with a design sketch.

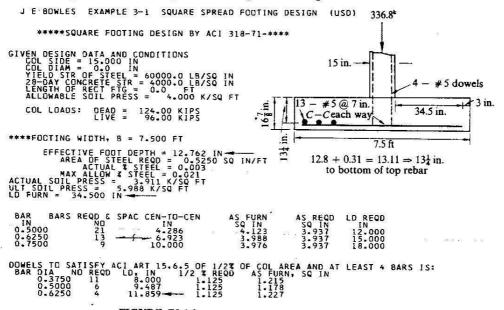


FIGURE E3-1.2 Computer output and final-design sketch using output data.

. SOLUTION (partial, by hand):

$$B^2 = \frac{220}{4} = 55$$
  $B = 7.415 \approx 7.5 \text{ ft}$   
 $P_u = 1.4(124) + 1.7(96) = 5.988 \text{ kips}$   $q_{\text{ult}} = \frac{336.8}{7.5^2} = 5.988 \text{ ksf}$ 

Find the depth for diagonal tension [Eq. (3-5)]:

$$w^{2} = 1.25^{2} = 1.563$$

$$BL = B^{2} = 7.5^{2} = 56.25$$

$$v_{c} = 215 \text{ psi} = 30.96 \text{ ksf} \qquad \text{Table 3-2}$$

$$\frac{q}{2} = 2.994 \text{ ksf} \qquad \frac{q}{4} = 1.497 \text{ ksf}$$

$$v_{c} + \frac{q}{4} = 32.457$$

$$\left(v_{c} + \frac{q}{2}\right) w = 42.4425$$

$$\frac{(B^{2} - w^{2})q}{4} = 81.87$$

Substituting into Eq. (3-5) gives

$$32.457d^2 + 42.4425d = 81.87$$
$$d^2 + 1.31d = 2.52$$

from which

$$d = 1.064 \text{ ft} = 12.76 \text{ in}$$

Find the required steel area  $A_s$  for bending

$$A_s > 0.002$$
 shrinkage < 0.021 maximum code Table 3-3

Find the ultimate moment; the "cantilever" is

$$L = \frac{7.5 - 1.25}{2} = 3.125 \text{ ft}$$

$$M_u = \frac{5.988(3.125)^2}{2} = 29.239 \text{ ft-kips} = 350.87 \text{ in-kips}$$

$$M_u = \phi A_s f_y \left( d - \frac{a}{2} \right) \qquad \phi = 0.90 \qquad \text{[Eq. (3-2)]}$$

$$a = \frac{A_s f_y}{0.85 f' b} = \frac{60 A_s}{40.8} = 1.47 A_s \qquad \text{taking 12-in width for } b$$

Substituting into Eq. (3-2) and dividing by 0.9 gives

$$60A_s(12.76 - 0.735A_s) = 389.86$$
$$A_s^2 - 17.36A_s = 8.841$$

Completing the square, we have

$$A_s = 0.525 \text{ sq in/ft}$$

Check the actual percent of steel:

$$p = \frac{0.525}{12.76 \times 12} = 0.0034 > 0.002 < 0.021$$
 O.K.

Check the bond:

$$L_d$$
 furnished = 3.125(12) - 3 = 34.5 in

(using 3 in of concrete cover on sides as well as bottom).

Select rebars: use thirteen no. 5 bars at 7 in center to center

$$A_s = 13(0.31) = 4.00 \text{ sq in}$$

Required 
$$A_s = 7.5(0.525) = 3.94 \text{ sq in}$$
 O.K

Required 
$$L_d = \frac{0.04(0.31)(60,000)}{\sqrt{4,000}} = 11.6 \text{ in } < 12 \text{ in}$$

Alternate 
$$L_d = 0.0004(0.625)(60,000) = 15.0$$
 in controls

Since neither required value of  $L_d$  is as large as the furnished value, no further check need be made.

Check column bearing on footing (refer to Fig. 3-3); by inspection

$$A_2 = (15 + 48)^2 = 63^2$$
  $A_1 = 15^2$ 

Ratio = 
$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{63}{15}\right)^2}$$
 = 4.2 > 2 use 2

$$P_{\text{allow}} = \text{ratio } (0.85f_c')\phi A = 1.7(225)(4)(0.7) = 1,071 \text{ kips } \gg 336.8 \text{ kips } \text{O.K.}$$

To satisfy ACI, art. 15.6.5, we must use four dowels of  $0.005A_c$ :

$$A_{\text{read}} = 0.005(225) = 1.125 \text{ sq in}$$

Use four no. 5 bars:

$$A_s = 4(0.31) = 1.25 \text{ sq in} > 1.125 \text{ required}$$

Check depth of footing for dowels:

$$L_d = 0.02 f_y D / \sqrt{f_c'} = 11.86 \text{ in} > 8 \text{ in}$$
  
 $L_d = 0.0003 f_y D = 11.25 \text{ in} < 11.86 \text{ in}$   
 $< 12.76 \text{ in (footing depth)}$ 

Both values of  $L_d$  are workable; use 11.875-in dowels.

1111

#### 3-4 RECTANGULAR SPREAD FOOTINGS

Rectangular spread footings are designed in a manner similar to square spread footings. In fact, the reader will note that Eqs. (3-5) and (3-6) are derived for either type of footing.

There are, however, two differences in design: (1) longitudinal steel requirements (steel parallel to long side) are larger than transverse steel requirements, and (2) the ACI Code requires that a certain percent of the total short-side steel requirement be placed in a zone of width B centered on the column and parallel to the transverse direction (Fig. 3-6). This percentage of the total short-side steel requirement is

$$S = \frac{2}{L/B + 1} \tag{3-7}$$

If this percent of the total required steel for the short side does not leave enough steel for the two end zones to satisfy minimum shrinkage requirements, the end-zone steel should be increased to satisfy that amount.

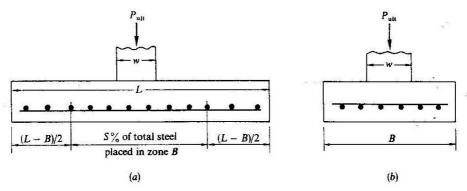


FIGURE 3-6 Rectangular-footing steel requirements for short side (ACI, art. 15.4.4). (a) Place half of remaining steel in each zone; if inadequate for shrinkage, use the amount to satisfy shrinkage requirements. (b) Note longitudinal steel on bottom for greater efficiency.

The computer program for square spread footings will also design a rectangular footing. It is programmed to make a footing square if it computes almost square by rounding up on the computed (not the required) dimension.

The program checks wide-beam shear for rectangular footings, as wide-beam shear may control the design depth for footings with L/B ratios larger than about 1.1. It has been shown [Furlong (1965)] that wide-beam shear will not control the design of square footings; however, this statement has not been proved mathematically.

EXAMPLE 3-2 Design a rectangular footing using metric units. Given data are as follows (partially shown in Fig. E3-2.1): length = 4.6 m,  $f_c' = 281$  kg/sq cm,  $f_c = 3,515$  kg/sq cm,  $q_a = 168$  kN/sq m, column diameter = 46 cm, DL = 1,015, and LL = 1,010 kN.

This problem is also worked using the computer program with part of the output displayed. Data for the computer-solution input are as follows:

	Card	Data					
1		TITLE (see Fig. E3-2.1) UT1UT8					
•	2	M CM KN KN-M KN/SQ M KN/CU M KG/SQ CM SQ CM					
	3	0.0 46.0 3515. 281. 4.6 168. 1025. 1010. NBAR (number of bars on CARD DATA SIBAR/···/)					
	4	9					

These four data cards represent the I/O shown following.

Note that since most of the solution here is similar to the spread-footing solution except for units (the reader may verify this), only the significantly different computations will be shown. Other computation data will be on the computer output sheets.

SOLUTION (partial): We will need to find the equivalent "cantilever" beams of the footing for bending moments in both directions. Since the column is round, we will compute an equivalent square column of side w'. A column of equal area will have a side dimension of

$$w' = \sqrt{1,661.9} = 40.77 \text{ cm} = 0.4077 \text{ m}$$

$$L' = \frac{4.600 - 0.408}{2} = 2.096 \text{ m} = 209.6 \text{ cm}$$

$$L_d = 209.6 - 7.5 = 202.1 \text{ cm} \quad \text{checks computer output}$$

$$M_u = \frac{253.8(2.096)^2}{2} = 557.60 \text{ kN-m} = 5,685,735.7 \text{ kg-cm}$$

$$a = 0.1472A_s \qquad \frac{M_u}{\phi f_y} = 17.973$$

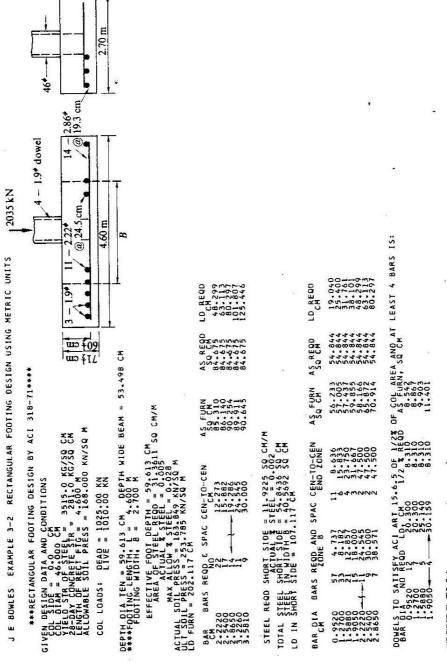


FIGURE E3-2.1 Computer output and final-design sketch. (Sketch is not to scale, and not all rebars are shown.) Substituting into Eq. (3-2) gives

$$A_s(59.61 - 0.0736A_s) = 1,797.3$$
 depth from computer output  $A_s = 31.36 \text{ sq cm/m}$ 

Use fourteen  $2.87\phi$  (no. 9) bars at 19.3 cm center to center (also from computer output)

$$L_d = 80.3 < 202.1 \text{ cm}$$
 O.K.

The short-side moment and steel requirements are now computed:

$$L' = \frac{2.700 - 0.408}{2} = 1.146 \text{ m}$$

$$L_d = 114.6 - 7.5 = 107.1 \text{ cm} \quad \text{output check}$$

$$M_u = \frac{253.8(1.146)^2}{2} = 166.7 \text{ kN-m} = 1,699,806.6 \text{ kg-cm}$$

Substituting into Eq. (3-2) gives

$$0.0736A_s^2 - 59.61A_s = -537.32$$
  
 $A_s = 9.12 \text{ sq cm/m}$ 

The percent steel furnished is

$$p = \frac{9.12}{59.6(100)} = 0.0015 < 0.002$$

Using 0.002, the required  $A_s$  is

$$5,960(0.002) = 11.92 \text{ sq cm/m}$$

The total  $A_s$  for the short side is 11.92(4.6) = 54.8 sq cm. The L/B is 1.70.

Percent steel in zone 
$$B = S = \frac{2}{1.70 + 1} = 0.741$$

Steel in width 
$$B = 54.8(0.741) = 40.6 \text{ sq cm}$$

Use eleven  $2.22\phi$  (no. 7) bars at 24.5 cm center to center in zone B (actual  $A_s=42.6$ ). Check end zone:

Width 
$$= \frac{4.6 - 2.7}{2} = 0.95 \text{ m}$$

Minimum  $A_s = 11.92(0.95)(0.002) = 11.32$  sq cm requires three  $2.22\phi$  bars

Use 11 + 3 + 3 = 17—2.22 $\phi$  (no. 7) bars at uniform spacing. Use 4—1.9 $\phi$ (no. 6) dowels to tie column to footing. See final sketch in Fig. E3-2.1.

# 3-5 COMPUTER PROGRAM TO DESIGN SQUARE AND RECTANGULAR SPREAD FOOTINGS

This computer program will proportion a spread footing for minimum depth and list a selection of bar sizes which can be used. The design engineer must inspect the output and select the final bar sizes and footing depth to complete an economical and adequate design considering practical limitations. This program does not intermix bar sizes.

This program will design either a square or rectangular two-way spread footing. Design is based on strength (or ultimate-strength design) and ACI 318-71. Either round or square columns may be used. The column must be centrally located on the footing, as eccentric footing loads are not considered. The program is valid for any strength concrete. Steel yield strength is limited to 60 ksi. This program will solve metric-unit problems, but only United States rebar sizes in fps and metric units are currently included (no. 3 to no. 11 bars). Conversion factors are used (21) on card DATA FFU/.../, alternate (2,4,6,...) being for metric units so that the user does not have to punch this as part of the data. The United States rebar sizes are on cards DATA USBAR/.../ and DATA SIBAR/.../ (for metric equivalents). Users of foreign rebars should change the card DATA SIBAR/.../.

Lines	Operation
1-2	DIMENSION is sister for (UINIT = 1) or metric.
3-5	DIMENSION  DATA Conversion factors for computations in either fps (IUNIT = 1) or metric.  Cards 4 and 5 are rebar diameters in fps and metric units. Only nine bars are used. If more bars are included, increase the numbers and change the appropriate DIMENSION
_	statement READ TITLE (any alpha-numeric description of problem and UNITS (UT1 - UT8, see
7	Examples 3-1 and 3-2 for entries)
9	READ A = column side; DIA = diameter (if round); FY, F1C = steel and concrete stresses; EL = length of rectangular footing; QALL = allowable soil pressure; PD, PL = dead and live working loads. Read A and DIA in inches (or centimeters); $f_y$ , $f_o$ in psi or kg/sq cm; $L$ in feet or meters; $q_a$ in ksf or kN/sq m and loads in kips or killonewtons. Punch 0.0 for column type not used and EL = 0.0 if footing is square. NBAR = Punch 0.0 for column type not used and EL = 0.0 if so the square of the square to the square type of the square typ
11-17	
26-51	Communication footing size and additists for rectangular rootings so that
52-87	Finds depth d for diagonal-tension and wide-beam shear
88-115	Finds required reinforcing steel
124-145	Finds bar sizes and $L_d$
147-176	Finds bat sizes and $L_d$ for short side of rectangular footing
177-217	Checks column dowel-bar requirements

```
0026
0027
0028
0029
0031
00332
00334
00336
00337
00339
00412
00412
00443
00445
00446
00448
00051
00052
0053
0055
0055
0057
0057
0058
0061
0061
0063
                                A = A/FU(1)
GO TO 2
CONVERT
CONVERT
CONVERT
DIAM.TO EFFECTIVE SQUARE
A = SQRT (0.7854*01A**2)/FU(1)
ACCL1 = 0.7854*01A**2
UVC = FU(4)*.85*SQRT(F1C)
EEL = (8-A)/2.
V = UVC*FU(2)
IF(D1A-GT.*0.15)GO TO 38
C1 = V + QULT/4.
C2 = (V + QULT/4.
C3 = -(4AF-A**2)*QULT/4.
DE = DE*FU(1)
GT TO 41

38 CP1 = V + QULT/4.
 0064
                       C
0065
00667
00668
00670
00772
00773
00775
00776
```

```
ELEMENTS OF STRUCTURAL DESIGN; SPREAD FOOTINGS, COMBINED FOOTINGS 101

CP2 = {V + CULT/2} **IDIA/FULT) ***

CP3 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**2 - 4 *CP1*CP3))/(2 *CP1)

CP3 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**2 - 4 *CP1*CP3))/(2 *CP1)

CP4 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**2 - 4 *CP1*CP3))/(2 *CP1)

CP4 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**2 - 4 *CP1*CP3))/(2 *CP1)

CP5 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**2 - 4 *CP1*CP3))/(2 *CP1)

CP5 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**2 - 4 *CP1*CP3))/(2 *CP1)

CP6 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**2 - 4 *CP1*CP3))/(2 *CP1)

AA = VIZULT

AA = VIZULT

AA = VIZULT

FIRST (CP2**4 - 4 *CP1*CP3)

PART (AA = 1 *CP1*CP3)

PART (AA = 1 *CP1*CP3)

PART (AA = 1 *CP1*CP3)

CP5 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**2 - 4 *CP1*CP3)}

CP6 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**4 - 4 *CP1*CP3)}

CP7 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**4 - 4 *CP1*CP3)}

CP7 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**4 - 4 *CP1*CP3)}

CP7 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**4 - 4 *CP1*CP3)}

CP7 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**4 - 4 *CP1*CP3)}

CP7 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**4 - 4 *CP1*CP3)}

CP7 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**4 - 4 *CP1*CP3)}

CP7 = {I - CP2 + SORT (CP2**4 - 4 *CP1*CP3)}

CP7 = {I - CP2 + CP2**4 - 4 *CP1*CP3}

CP7 = {I - CP2 + CP2**4 - 4 *CP1*CP3}

CP7 = {I - CP2 + CP2**4 - 4 *CP1*CP3}

CP7 = {I - CP2 + CP2**4 - 4 *CP1*CP3}

CP7 = {I - CP2**4 
   912394990100394967899010010010001112
   0113
0114
0115
0116
0118
0112
0121
0122
0123
0124
       0125
   0127
0128
0129
0130
0131
0132
0134
0135
0136
0137
   0138
00140
00141
00142
00143
00145
00147
00148
   0149
```

```
0166345678901277456789017779
```

#### 3-6 DESIGN LIMITATIONS

The design principle utilized has been that the spread footing is absolutely rigid, i.e.,

$$q = \frac{P}{A_{\text{footing}}}$$

Nothing has been said about what footing proportions (depth, width, cantilevered length from column face, modulus of elasticity) or material properties are necessary to achieve rigidity. Studies [Schultze (1961)] and analysis based on the theory of elasticity [Borowicka (1936, 1938)] have shown that the actual soil pressure is generally not uniform but is somewhat as shown in Fig. 3-7. From this it is apparent that footings on cohesionless materials and depending on the flexural rigidity EI may approach a uniform soil pressure. Footings on soils with cohesion tend to higher edge pressures, depending again on the flexural rigidity. The work of Borowicka has been used [Bowles (1973)] to obtain approximate design edge pressures, as shown in Fig. 3-8, if the designer feels this is appropriate.

The application of edge pressures with reduced average contact pressures does not change the design as much as might be expected since the effect is somewhat nullified through use of larger contact pressures in the conventional design. Another mitigating factor is that footing rigidity is significantly increased by obtaining the footing depth to satisfy concrete shear strength without the use of shear reinforcement.

# 3-7 COMBINED FOOTINGS (RECTANGULAR)

Column footings adjacent to property lines may be eccentrically loaded if the column is placed as close as possible to the property boundary, as shown in Fig. 3-9a. A problem may exist where rectangular footings may interfere, as Fig. 3-9b. The situation of Fig. 3-9c may arise if the soil is of such low allowable bearing capacity that the resulting footing dimensions conflict. In these three cases a possible solution is to put more than one column on a combined footing. When more than one line of columns is on the footing, it is termed a mat or raft, with a solution to be considered later (Chap. 7). Some engineers are of the opinion, however, that it may be more economical, even if the foundation site is saturated with footings, to use spread footings, if at all possible, to avoid placing both positive- and negative-bending steel. A small side benefit in formwork savings may be obtained where footings are very close by pouring alternate footings so that the poured footing can be used as a form by inserting a thin spacer board between footings.

A combined footing may have more than two columns in a line; however, this chapter and its computer program consider only a two-column case. The reason will be apparent later.

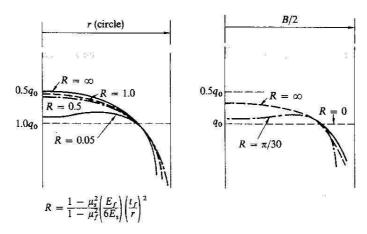
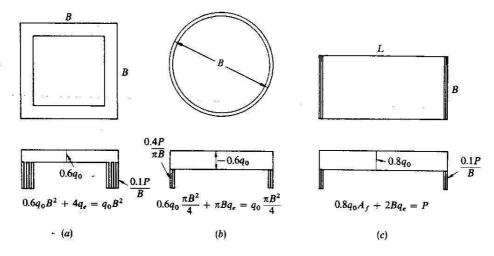


FIGURE 3-7 Footing pressures based on theoretical considerations. [After Borowicka (1936, 1938).]

Combined footings may be of any shape; this section considers only rectangular shapes, and Sec. 3-9 considers a trapezoid.

Combined footings may more properly be considered slabs or mats if the L/B ratio is over about 2 to 2.25. The ACI Code does not provide much guidance on their design except to leave it largely to the designer's judgment (art. 15.10). The design



Alternative pressure distribution for footings on cohesive soil: (a) square; (b) circle; (c) rectangle. [After Bowles (1973).]

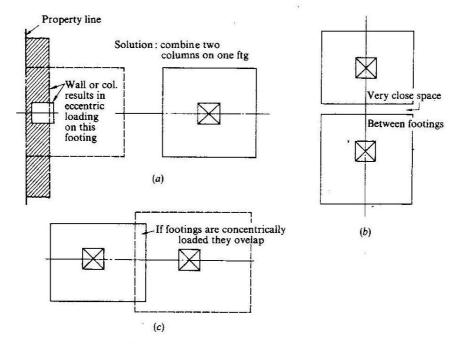


FIGURE 3-9 Some conditions where combined footing may be the most practical solution: (a) column or load-bearing wall is so close to the property line that a footing would be eccentrically loaded; (b) footings are so close together that it may be more practical to combine them; (c) column loads are such that the resulting spread footings interfere.

steps outlined in the following paragraphs are those considered to be accepted practice. It is not unreasonable to consider a combined footing as a slab. The reader may make this comparison between the combined footing and the same footing analyzed as a mat in Chap. 7.

The following steps constitute proportioning and finding the required steel area as done in the computer program (included in this chapter).

Referring to Fig. 3-10, the assumption is one of uniform soil pressure beneath the footing. If one can utilize the distance AK shown, then-either B or L may be specified and the resultant of column loads can be made to coincide with the center of the area. By making the assumption of uniform soil pressure the load resultant must coincide with the center of area.

Some engineers have proposed two approaches to converting to USD from working loads: (1) convert the loads and soil pressure to "ultimate" values and proceed

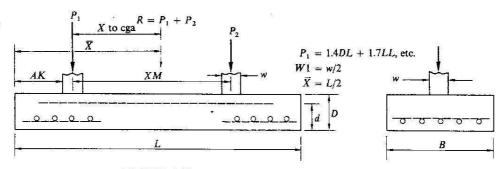


FIGURE 3-10

Conventional analysis of combined footing. The load resultant R coincides with the center of area (cga) for a uniform soil distribution beneath the footing. Note location of both positive and negative reinforcing steel.

or (2) use the working-load values then multiply the resulting shear and moment values by a ratio

$$UR = \frac{\sum P_{\text{ult}}}{\sum P_{\text{work}}}$$

The author recommends using method (1) to ensure a better computed closure of the moment diagram. It is found that method (2) will result in a small eccentricity between the resultant location and the center of area. The difference is of no practical significance, but is annoying in trying to obtain a moment-diagram closure as an arithmetical check.

The first step is to find the footing dimensions. It will be necessary as a part of the early computations to obtain the "ultimate" soil pressure as

$$q_{\rm ult} = q_a(UR)$$

$$RX = P_2(XM)$$

from which X is found. Now X + W1 + AK = L/2 by inspection of Fig. 3-10. If the footing width B is not given (and note that the end distance AK may be zero),

$$L = 2(X + W1 + AK)$$

$$B = \frac{R}{Lq_{\rm ult}}$$

If B is given (AK must not be limited),

$$L = \frac{R}{Ba_{uv}}$$

and one must compute AK.

Once footing dimensions are established, the total soil pressure per linear foot of footing (total load per foot, TLPF) is

$$TLPF = Bq_{ult}$$

as shown in Fig. 3-11.

Now the shear and moment diagrams can be constructed using conventional mechanics-of-materials methods. This is a tedious operation and ideally suited for the computer program, which finds the moment at each 1 ft (0.3 m) along the member, the maximum value at zero shear, and the values at the faces of the columns. Shears are likewise found at the critical locations of column faces, and the point of zero shear is located.

Footing depth is computed considering both wide-beam and diagonal-tension possibilities. Note that this can be a formidable endeavor since Fig. 3-11 indicates four possible cases of wide-beam shear (all but one can be eliminated by visual inspection and with only minor difficulty on the computer) and four cases (two at each end) of diagonal tension. These four cases depend on the value of C and AK producing a perimeter, which may be three- or four-sided. Remember that widebeam allowable stress is  $2\phi\sqrt{f_c'}$  and diagonal tension is  $4\phi\sqrt{f_c'}$ .

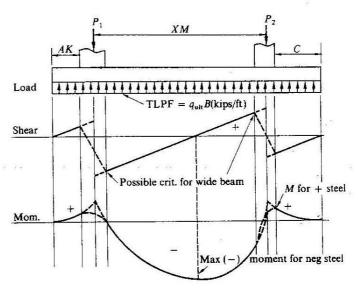


FIGURE 3-11 Soil-pressure assumptions and qualitative shear and moment diagram. Note that critical design locations are the same whether column loads are treated as distributed or point loads.

After obtaining the depth to satisfy shear without using shear reinforcement, the next operation is to determine longitudinal steel requirements both positive (or bottom steel) at the ends and negative (or top steel) between columns.

Steel for bending in the transverse direction must also be provided. Column bearing stresses and dowels are checked and provided in the same manner as for spread footings.

EXAMPLE 3-3 Design a combined rectangular footing for the conditions and data shown in Fig. E3-3.1. Use the computer output of Figs. E3-3.3 and E3-3.4 to check and/or obtain remaining design information.

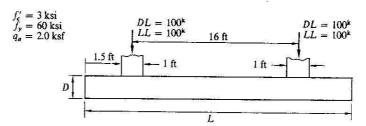


FIGURE E3-3.1

The computer input is as follows:

Card	Data
1	TITLE (see Fig. E3-3.3) UT1-UT7
2	FT IN KIPS FT-KIPS KIPS/SQ FT KIPS/LIN FT LB/SQ IN FUI-FU8
3	12144 2.00 4.00 87000. 200001 1.0
4	.50 .50 100. 100. 100. 100. 16.0 2.0 (Column half widths, DL, LL both columns, column spacing and allowable soil pressure)
5	3000. 60000. 1.50 0.0

These five cards represent input data. Output is on Figs. E3-3.3 and E3-3.4. Note that card UT1-UT7 and card FU1-FU8 are also used in the trapezoid footing of the next section.

SOLUTION (partial): Find "ultimate" values for loads and soil pressure

$$P_{\text{ult}} = 140 + 170 = 310 \text{ kips}$$
 and  $UR = \frac{310}{200} = 1.55$   
 $q_{\text{ult}} = 2 \times 1.55 = 3.10 \text{ ksf}$ 

Summing moments about column 1, we find the location of the load resultant and center of footing area as

$$X = \frac{16(310)}{620} = 8.00 \text{ ft}$$

Find the footing length L since it is now fixed:

$$L = 2(8 + 0.5 + 1.5) = 20.00 \text{ ft}$$

Find B:

$$B = \frac{\sum P_{\text{ult}}}{Lq_{\text{ult}}} = \frac{620}{20(3.10)} = 10.00 \text{ ft}$$

TLPF = 
$$3.1 \times 10 = 31.00 \text{ kips/lin ft}$$

Based on the computed dimensions and using conventional methods the shear and moment diagrams (author uses the computer printout) are completed as shown on Fig. E3-3.4.

Wide-beam shear from the shear diagram by inspection of values of 232.5 - 31d(kips) is used to find the effective footing depth as 16.901 in. Diagonal-tension shear similar to that for simple spread footings is investigated for two cases.

Case 1 four-sided perimeter.

Case 2 three-sided perimeter. It should be evident that depending on the value of AK, the punch-out zone could be three-sided.

Check the computer output for case 1 (either column from symmetry) and refer to Fig. E3-3.2.

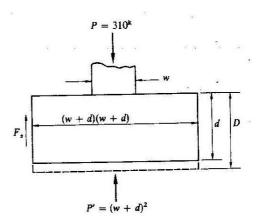


FIGURE E3-3.2

The perimeter shear resistance is

$$4(w+d)v_cd=F_s$$

The upward soil pressure is

$$(w + d)^2 q_{\text{ult}} = P'$$
 case 1

Summing vertical forces gives

$$F_s + P' - P_{uit} = 0$$

By substitution we obtain

$$110.34d^2 + 113.44d = 306.9$$

$$d = 1.231 \text{ ft} = 14.77 \text{ in}$$
 checks computer output

Checking a case 2 possibility is left as an exercise for the reader.

The computation for area of steel is similar to that for a spread footing except that here the computed moment is for the entire footing width of 10 ft; thus

$$a = \frac{A_{\rm s} f_{\rm y}}{0.85 f_{\rm c}'(120)}$$

and the resulting computation for top or negative  $A_s$  is

$$A_s = 13.246$$
 sq in per 10-ft width

The designer may select a series of bars to satisfy this requirement, e.g., seventeen no. 8 bars at 7 in center to center:

$$A_s$$
 furnished = 17(0.785) = 13.35 sq in > 13.25

The bars may be run all the way or terminated at the exterior column faces, as shown. Positive steel in the two cantilevered end zones is based on a minimum of  $200/f_y = 0.0033$ . This gives

$$A_s = 0.0033(120)(17) = 6.76 \text{ sq in}$$

which is greater than the approximately 5.04 sq in shown in Fig. E3-3.3 as required to satisfy the bending moment.

```
J E BOWLES EXAMPLE 3-3 COMBINED FOOTING DESIGN USING USD
      COLUMN TOTAL LOADS ARE: COL 1 = 200.0 KIPS COL 2 = 200.0 KIPS CONCRETE AND STEEL STRESSES: F1C = 3000. LB/SQ IN FY = 60000. LB/SQ IN
     PULT COL 1 = 310.000 KIPS

PULT COL 2 = 310.000 KIPS

PULT LOAD/FI OF FTG = 31.000 K/LIN FT

PULT LOAD/FI OF FTG = 31.000 K/LIN FT

WIDTH = 10.000 FT

LENGIH = 20.000 FT

4E L/8 RATIO = 2.000
                                                          = 10.000 FROM COL 1 END
MAX SHEAR USED FOR WIDE BEAM = 232.500 KIPS
DEPTH OF CONCRETE FOR WIDE BEAM = 16.901 IN
      DEPTH OF CONCRETE FOR CASE 1 a COL 1 = 14.771 IN
      DEPTH OF CONCRETE FOR CASE 1 @ COL 2 = 14.771 IN
      DEPTH OF CONCRETE FOR CASE 2 @ CDL 1 = 15.127 IN
       DEPTH OF CONCRETE FOR CASE 2 a COL 2 = 15.127 IN
       ***** DEPTH OF CONCRETE USED FOR DESIGN = 16.901 IN
*** AS = TOTAL STEEL AREA FOR FTG WIDTH OF 8
DISTANCE
FROM END SHEAR MOMENT,FT-K
```

FIGURE E3-3.3 Computer output for Example 3-3.

MAX % STEEL =0.016 % MIN % STEEL =0.003 %

MAX STEEL AREA = 32.520 SQ IN MIN STEEL AREA = 6.760 SQ IN

Compute transverse steel requirements. Note that the computer program does not perform this step. Take an equivalent (see Chap. 7) beam<sup>1</sup> of

$$w + 3d = 1.00 + 4.23 = 5.23 \text{ ft}$$
 say 5.0 ft  
 $q'_{ult} = \frac{310}{50} = 6.20 \text{ ksf}$   
 $M'_{u} = \frac{6.2}{2} (4.5)^{2} = 62.8 \text{ ft-kips} = 753.6 \text{ in-kips}$ 

Take an effective depth d of approximately d-1 in to allow for bar diameters and place this steel on top of the longitudinal bars:

$$d' = d - 1$$
 in = 17 - 1 = 16 in

Substituting into Eq. (3-2) and rearranging, we have

$$A_s(16 - 0.98A_s) = \frac{753.6}{0.9(60)}$$

$$0.98A_s - 16A_s = -13.96$$

$$A_s = 8.17 - 7.25 = 0.92 \text{ sq in/ft}$$

$$A_{s \text{ total}} = 5(0.92) = 4.60 \text{ sq in}$$

Use eight no. 7 bars at 7.5 in center to center. The steel area furnished is

$$A_s = 8(0.60) = 4.8 \text{ sq in} > 4.60$$

For remainder of footing use minimum for flexure (ACI, art. 10.5.1)

$$A_s = 0.0033(17)(12) = 0.68 \text{ sq in/ft}$$
  
Total =  $0.68 \times 10 = 6.8 \text{ sq in}$ 

Use twelve no. 7 bars at 10 in center to center

$$A_s$$
 furnished = 7.20 sq in > 6.80 sq in O.K.

Figures E3-3.3 and E3-3.4 illustrate typical computer output and final design sketch. Note that no design has been made of column dowels to attach the columns to footing. This part of the design is omitted because it is identical to that of spread footings.

1111

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Keep in mind that by making this zone "stiffer" it will tend to "attract" moment into a narrower width.

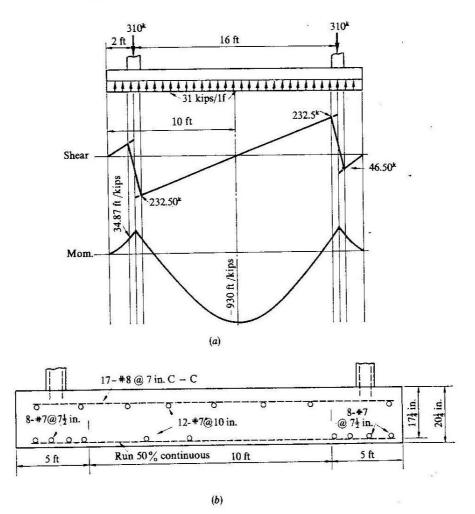


FIGURE E3-3.4 (a) Shear and moment diagrams and (b) final-design sketch (not to scale). Generally run negative steel and 50 percent positive steel all the way unless end overhangs are large.

# 3-8 COMPUTER PROGRAM TO DESIGN COMBINED FOOTING (CONVENTIONAL)

This program will design a continuous rectangular footing with two square columns loaded with axial loads (no moments) at any location based on USD and ACI 318-71. Column 1 is the left column, and footing orientation should be such as to achieve this placement. Distance AK is from the left edge of the footing to the left face of the first column. Final footing dimensions are symmetrical with respect to the resultant of column widths. The program does not find required steel areas in the short direction. The designer may round dimensions for practical considerations. Metric units can be used with this program via use of cards UT1-UT7 and FU1-FU8. The fps equivalents are in Example 3-3, and the metric entries are listed in Example 3-4.

```
Line
                Operation
                READ TITLE AND UT1-UT7 (two cards)
                READ FU1-FU8 (see Examples 3-3 and 3-4 for numerical values)
        8
                 W1, W2 = half widths of columns 1 and 2, ft; DL1, XLL1, DL2, XLL2 = column
                dead and line loads, kips; XM = center to center column spacing, ft; QALL = allow-
                able soil pressure, ksf (for metric problems use meter and kN units)
                 READ
                F1C, FY = f'_{o}, f_{y} in psi; AK = distance from left end to left face of column 1, ft; B = footing width if controlling. If B > 0, then AK = 0
 17-29
                Finds footing dimensions
 44-53
                 Computes critical shear and moment values at column faces
 61 - 83
                Finds footing depth to satisfy wide beam and two cases of diagonal tension at each end
86-120
                 Computes shear and moments at 1-ft (or 0.3-m) intervals and corresponding reinforcing
                steel required
                                                              IED FOOTING BY USD (ACT 318-71) DESIGN--LIMIT = 2
DTHS+ AK ALWAYS LEFT END
                                                                                     Ŷ2,U*3,UT4,UT5,UT6,UT7,UT8
                    1001
                                                       ],UT3,UT3,W1,DL1,XLL1,W2,DL2,XLL2,XM,UT1,AK,UT1,
                                                 . 115

, FDOTING DESIGN INPUT DATA IS AS FDLLOWS: '/T5, 'COL NO',

)TH COL, ',A2,3X,'DL, ',A4,3X,'L. LOAD, ',A4,/ T6,'l',

35,F6.1,146,F6.1/76,'2',T15,F5.3,T35,F6.1,146,F6.1/

36TWEEN COLS = ',F6.3,IX,A2/T10,'DIST END FTG TO LT

5-2.1X.A2/T10.'FCOTING WIDTH B = ',F6.2,1X,A2/T15,
      0014
                                                              ', A2,3X,'DL, ',A4,3X,'L- LOAD, ',A4,/ T6,'l',
T46,F6.1/16,'2',T15,F5.3,T35,F6.1,T46,F6.1/
COLS = ',F6.3,1X,A2/T10,'DIST END FTG TO LT FACE
2/T10,'FCOTING WIGHTH, B = ',F6.2,1X,A2/T15,
L PRESSURE = ',F6.2,1X,A7/)
,P2,UT3,F1C,UT7,FY,UT7
TOTAL LOADS ARE: COL I = ',F6.1,1X,A4,3X,'COL 2
'CONCRETE AND STEEL STRESSES:',3X,'F1C = ',
',F7.0,1X,A8,//)
      0015
                       501
```

```
C=2.0*W1
D=2.0*W2
E = AK + XM + W1 + W2
OP1=UP1/(2.*W1)
DP2=UP2/(2.*W1)
OP2=UP2/(2.*W1)
CDMPUTE SHEAR AND MOMENT AT CRITICAL LOCATIONS ALONG FOOTING
V1= TIP=*AC AND MOMENT AT CRITICAL LOCATIONS ALONG FOOTING
V1R = V1LF+*AC UP1+*C
V2R = TLP=*AC UP1-UP2
DIST = AK + C UP1-UP2
DIST = AK + C UP1-UP2
DIST = AK + C UP1-UP2
EMOL1 = .5*TLPF*A(**2) - UP1*(IN-W1)
EMOL2 = .5*TLPF*A(**2) - UP1*(IN-W2)
EMOR2 = .5*TLPF*A(**2) - UP1*(IN-W2)
EMOR2 = .5*TLPF*A(**2) - UP1*(IN-W2)
EMOR2 = .5*TLPF*A(**2)
WRITE(3,505)V1L.V13,V1R,V1R,V13,V2L,U13,V2R,U13.EMOL1,U14,EMOR1,U14,

505 FORMAT(//T5,'THE SHEAR AT LT FACE COL 1 = ',F10.2,1X,A4/T5,'THE SHE
AR AT RT FACE COL 1 = ',F10.2,1X,A4/T5,'THE SHE
3=',F10.2,1X,A4/T5,'THE SHEAR AT LT FACE COL 2 = ',F10.2,1X,A4/T5,'THE MOMENT AT RT FACE COL 1 = ',F10.2,1X,A4/T5,'THE MOMENT AT RT FACE COL 2 = ',F10.2,1X,A4/T5,'THE MAE
AND MOMENT = ',F10.2,1X,A4/T5,'THE MOMENT AT RT FACE COL 2 = ',F10.2,1X,A4/T5,'THE MAE
COMPUTE MAX AND MIN STEEL REQUIREMENTS
NOTE CONCRETE LIMITED TO FIC NOT MORE THAN 4000 PSI DUE TO P8
PB = ((.85**2)*F1C/FY)*(FU5/(FU5 + FY))*-.75
SMIN = FU6/FY
FYS = FYFFU7
FIGURE MAX AND MIN STEEL REQUIREMENTS
NOTE CONCRETE LIMITED TO FIC NOT MORE THAN 4000 PSI DUE TO P8
FYS = FYFFU7
FIGURE MAX AND MIN STEEL REQUIREMENTS
NOTE CONCRETE LIMITED TO FIC NOT MORE THAN 4000 PSI DUE TO P8
FYS = FYFFU7
FIGURE MAX AND MIN STEEL REQUIREMENTS
NOTE CONCRETE LIMITED TO FIC NOT MORE THAN 4000 PSI DUE TO P8
FYS = FYFFU7
FIGURE MAX AND MIN STEEL REQUIREMENTS
NOTE CONCRETE LIMITED TO FIC NOT MORE THAN 4000 PSI DUE TO P8
FYS = FYFFU7
FIGURE MAX AND MIN STEEL REQUIREMENTS
0044
0045
0046
0047
0049
0051
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0055
                                                          0056
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000996
001002
001006
001006
00111123
```

# 3-9 TRAPEZOID FOOTING DESIGN

When it is necessary to use a combined footing and the distance AK of Sec. 3-7 is limited or the column loads are unequal, the resultant of the column loads may fall at a distance less than L/2 from one end of the footing (Fig. 3-12). If the distance  $\overline{X}$  is

$$\frac{L}{2} > \overline{X} < \frac{L}{3}$$

one may use a trapezoid-shaped footing to obtain the assumed condition of load resultant coincident with the center of the area. As with the rectangular combined footing of Sec. 3-7, the assumption is made that the footing is rigid and soil pressure uniform.

Equations can be derived (see any text on plane geometry) for a trapezoid to give

$$\overline{X} = \frac{L}{3} \frac{2m+n}{m+n}$$
 locate center of gravity of area (3-8)

$$A = (m + n) \frac{L}{2} \quad \text{area of trapezoid}$$
 (3-9)

The proportioning and design of a trapezoidal footing follow.

I Convert loads to ultimate and find the ultimate load ratio (UR of Sec. 3-7) and the ultimate soil pressure

$$q_{\rm ult} = q_a UR$$

- 2 Locate the load resultant on the footing to obtain  $\overline{X}$ .
- 3 Solve Eqs. (3-8) and (3-9) simultaneously for m and n.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> It should be evident that if X = L/2, the solution of Sec. 3-7 is obtained; if X = L/3, the resulting footing is triangular.

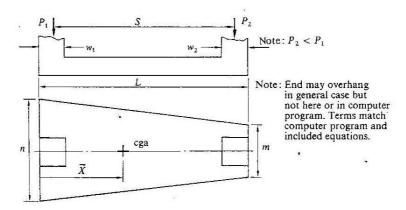


FIGURE 3-12 Trapezoid footing when one column load is larger than the other and L is limited.

4 Find the load per foot of footing at each end as

$$Q_{\text{big end}} = nq_{\text{ult}}$$
 $Q_{\text{small end}} = mq_{\text{ult}}$ 

The load per foot of footing is linear from one end to the other.

5 Draw shear and moment diagrams noting

Shear = second-degree curve

Moment = third-degree curve '

- 6 Find depth for wide-beam and diagonal tension.
- Find steel for bending considering the footing width variable.

EXAMPLE 3-4 Make a partial design using metric units of a trapezoidal footing for the conditions shown in Fig. E3-4.1. Compare and use computer output of Fig. E3-4.4.

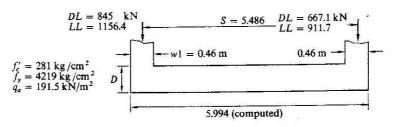


FIGURE E3-4.1

#### 118 ANALYTICAL AND COMPUTER METHODS IN FOUNDATION ENGINEERING

Computer data input is as follows:

Card	Data
1	TITLE (see Fig. E3-4.4) UT1 - UT7
2	M CM KN KN-M KN/SQ M KN/LN M KG/S QCM FUI - FU8
3	100. 98.07 .530 1.06 6117, 14.06 .009807 .30
4	845. 1156,4 667.1 911.7 281, 4219. 191.51 (loads, material properties)
5	.4572 .4572 5.4864 (column widths and spacing)

These five cards represent the input. The output is shown in Fig. E3-4.4.

SOLUTION The ultimate soil pressure is found as follows:

$$P_{\text{work}} = 2,001.4 + 1,578.8 = 3,580.2 \text{ kN}$$

$$P_{\text{ult}} = 3,148.88 + 2,483.83 = 5,632.71 \text{ kN}$$

$$UR = \frac{5,632.7}{3,580.2} = 1.573 \qquad q_{\text{uh}} = 191.51(1.573) = 301.25 \text{ kN/sq m}$$

Required footing area =  $\frac{5,632.7}{301.25}$  = 18.69 sq m

$$(m+n)\frac{L}{2} = 18.69$$

$$m+n = \frac{18.69}{2.972} = 6.289 \text{ m}$$
(a)

Also the location of the center of area (cga) is

$$X = \frac{2,483.8(5.486)}{5,632.7} = 2.42 \text{ m}$$
 and  $\overline{X} = 2.42 + 0.23 = 2.65 \text{ m}$ 

From Eq. (3-8)

$$\frac{2m + n}{m + n} \frac{L}{3} = \overline{X}$$

or

$$\frac{2m+n}{m+n} = 1.338 (b)$$

Solving Eqs. (a) and (b) for m and n gives

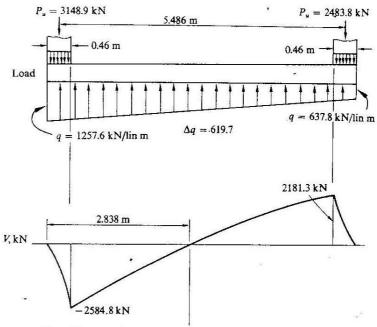
$$m = 2.12$$
 and  $n = 4.17$  m

The soil-pressure distribution is

$$Q_{be} = 4.17(301.3) = 1,257 \text{ kN/lin m}$$

$$Q_{\text{se}} = 2.12(301.3) = 638.0 \text{ kN/lin m}$$

from which the shear and moment diagrams of Fig. E3-4.2 can be constructed.



Note: Diagrams drawn considering column loads as distributed on footing. Computer program computes column loads as point loads. No difference is obtained at critical shear and moment locations.

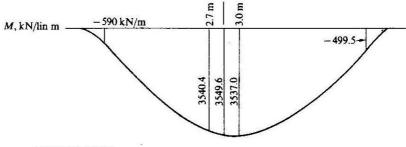


FIGURE E3-4,2

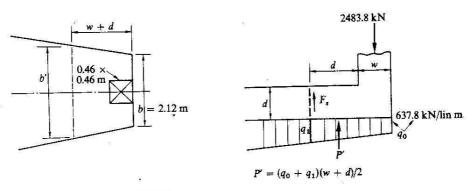


FIGURE E3-4.3 Wide-beam shear at small end of footing.

The depth for the wide-beam shear at the small end is as follows (see Figs. E3-4.2 and E3-4.3):

$$F_s + P' - 2,483.83 = 0$$
  
 $F_s = 1,687.9d + 255.5d^2$   
 $P' = 304.23 + 684.91d + 51.17d^2$ 

Solving gives

$$d = 0.83 \text{ m} = 83 \text{ cm}$$
 checks  $(D \ge 83 + 9 \cong 93 \text{ cm})$ 

It is also necessary to check the large end for wide-beam shear since it is usually not possible to tell by inspection which end is critical.

A check for diagonal tension is required, but it is only necessary to check the large end. It should be evident that the footing width dimension m should be

$$m > \text{column width} + d$$
 (2.127 (.46 + .83))

so that a modified diagonal-tension zone does not control at small end.

The area of steel at selected points along the footing is computed with due consideration for the variable width of the footing (see Fig. E3-4.3) and using minimum percent as  $200/f_y$  (or  $14.06/f_y$ ).

Since no new concepts are needed for the selection for steel bars, this exercise will be left for the reader. The same procedure used for the rectangular footing may be used for transverse-steel computations, i.e., two equivalent beams of width

Column width + 3d

Since the footing width is varying, use the average footing width and soil pressure in the zone 3d for bending moment.

Checking for dowels (ACI, art. 15.62), since the distance X of Fig. 3-3 is zero,

$$f_c = 0.85(0.70)f_c' = 167.2 \text{ kg/sq cm}$$

```
J E BOWLES EXAMPLE 3-4 TRAPEZOID FOOTING METRIC UNITS
```

```
GENERAL INPUT DATA IS AS FOLLOWS
```

```
COL 1
DEAD LOAD = 845.00 KN DEAD LO
LIVE LOAD = 1156.40 KN LIVE LO
COL WIDTH = 0.46 M COL WID
COL SPACING CEN TO CEN = 5.486 M
YIELD STRESS OF STEEL = 4210.0
THE ALLOWABLE SOIL PRESSURE = 19
```

THE COMPUTED QUANTITIES ARE AS FOLLOWS
TOTAL LENGTH = 5.94 M TOTAL FTG AREA = 18.69 SQ-M
XBAR = 2.42 M DIST TO C.G. OF FTG AREA = 2.65 M
WIDTH a BIG END = 4.17 M WIDTH a SMALL END = 2.12 M

ULT LOAD COL 1 =3148-88 KN ULT LOAD COL 2 =2483-83 KN THE ULTIMATE LOAD RATIO =1.57

ULT SOIL PRESSURE = 301.301 KN/SQ M SOIL PRESS 8IG END =1257.552 KN/LIN M SOIL PRESS SMALL END = 637.833 KN/LIN M DIFF OF END PRESS, DELQ =619.719

```
THE SHEAR LEFT COL 1 = 284.75 KN
THE SHEAR RIGHT COL 1 = 2864.13 KN
THE SHEAR FACE COL 1 = -2584.82 KN
THE SHEAR FACE COL 2 = 2335.29 KN
THE SHEAR RIGHT COL 2 = 2181.31 KN
THE SHEAR FACE COL 2 = 2181.31 KN
THE MOM AT COL 1 = 32.65 KN-M
THE MOM AT COL 1 = 32.65 KN-M
THE MOM AT FACE COL 1 = -590.06 KN-M
THE MOM AT FACE COL 2 = -499.49 KN-M
THE MOM AT FACE COL 2 = -499.49 KN-M
```

THE SHEAR IS ZERO AT 2.838 M FROM BIG END
THE COMPUTED SHEAR AT THIS POINT IS 0.0 KN
THE MAX MOMENT @ ZERC SHEAR LOCATION = -3549.59 KN-M

DEPTH OF CONC FOR WIDE BEAM SHEAR SMALL END = 83.047 CM DEPTH OF CONC FOR WIDE BEAM SHEAR LARGE END = 64.886 CM DEPTH OF CONC FOR PUNCH SHEAR AT LARGE END = 69.905 CM \*\*\*\*\*\* DEPTH OF CONC USED FOR DESIGN = 83.047 CM

THE MAX ALLOW STEEL AREA = 177.380 SQ CM/M THE MIN. ALLOW STEEL AREA = 27.676 SQ CM/M MAX % STEEL =0.021 % MIN % STEEL =0.003 %

DIST. M 0.300 0.4000 1.2000 1.8000 2.1000 2.1000 3.3000 3.9000 4.5000 4.5000 4.5000 5.4000	SHEAR, 0.0 -276-306 -2306 -24059.3111 -24059.3889 -17714.8852 -1073744.1990 -431.0443 -431.05473 4332.6617 1254.6998 1686.207 12154.637 2121.6848	MOMENT, KN-M 0.0 168-891 9417-5418 1617-5418 23018-7-258 23018-7-258 23018-7-258 23018-7-258 23018-7-258 23018-7-258 23028-7	FOOT. WIDTH, M 4.174 4.070 3.9862 3.758 3.655 3.6551 3.443 3.136 3.032 2.928 2.7616 2.513 2.409 2.305	AS, COM/M C000 1.78435 13.7476 24.02827 24.02827 24.02827 24.7813 24.7813 24.7813 24.7813 24.7813 24.7813 24.7813 24.7813 24.7813 24.1651 27.7164
5.400 5.700 5.944	2121.684 2325.348 -0.005	685.402 18.121 0.012	2.305 2.201 2.117	0.266 0.000

FIGURE E3-4.4

Computer output for trapezoid footing using metric units.

and the maximum allowable column load is

$$P_b = \frac{167.2(46)^2(9.807)}{1,000} = 3,470 > 3,149 \text{ kN}$$
 ultimate load column 1

Therefore, dowels are not required. To satisfy ACI, art. 15.6.5, use four bars of  $A_s$  at least

$$A_s = 0.005(2,116) = 10.58 \text{ sq cm}$$
 say four no. 6 bars at  $4(2.84) = 11.36 \text{ sq cm}$ 

$$L_d = \frac{0.0755 f_y D}{\sqrt{f_c'}}$$

$$= \frac{0.755(4,219)(1.905)}{\sqrt{281}} = 36.1 \text{ cm} > 20.3 \text{ cm}$$
 O.K.

Check:

$$L_d = 0.00427 f_y D = 0.00427(4,219)(1.905) = 34.3 \text{ cm} < 36.1 \text{ cm}$$

Use

$$L_{\rm d} \approx 40~{\rm cm}$$
 can use up to about 83 cm

////

# 3-10 COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR TRAPEZOID FOOTING

The included trapezoid-footing-design computer program is based on ACI 318-71 (ultimate-strength design). The program is only for a footing with no overhang and axial loads (no column moments) at either end; i.e., column faces are flush with the ends of the footing. The column with the largest load is column 1. Concrete stresses are limited to 4,500 psi because of  $p_b$ . Steel yield stress is limited to 60 ksi. Column loads are treated as point loads acting at the center of columns. The program does not find required steel areas in the short direction. This program will solve metric problems by use of data cards UT1-UT7 and FU1-FU8 (see Examples 3-3 and 3-4 for entries).

Line	Operation
1-2	Bookkeeping
2	READ TITLE, UT1-UT7 (two cards)
2 7 8	READ FU1-FU8
8	READ
26	PD1, PL1, PD2, PL2 = columns 1 and 2 dead and live loads; F1C, FY = concrete and steel stresses; QALL = allowable soil pressure; use consistent units
9	READ
	W1, W2 = column widths; $S = column spacing (ft or m)$
13-27	Finds ultimate soil pressure and footing dimensions
30-52 -	Finds shear and moments at 1-ft (or 0.3-m) increments and at critical locations
53-80	Finds depth to satisfy both wide beam and diagonal tension and total area of steel for bending at each increment along footing as specified by FU8 (1 ft and 0.3 m)

```
C JE BOWLES PROG ID SOLVE A TRAPEZOIO FIG W/O END DVERHANG OUDELS PROG ID SOLVE A TRAPEZOIO FIG W/O END DVERHANG OUDELS PROG ID SOLVE A TRAPEZOIO FIG W/O END DVERHANG OUDELS PROG IS NO 1/5 NO
   0001
0002
0003
0004
0005
0006
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0009
0011
0012
   0053
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```

# 3-11 SELECTED METRIC CONVERSION FACTORS FOR THE ACI CODE

The following are the ACI (318-71) Code metric conversion factors applicable to those design equations used in this text containing numerical factors.

fps*	Metric†
$2\phi\sqrt{f_c'}$	$0.530 \phi \sqrt{f_c'}$
$4\phi\sqrt{f_c'}$	$1.06 \phi \sqrt{f_c'}$
5 \$√f' <sub>c</sub>	$1.33 \phi \sqrt{f'_o}$
200	14.06
f <sub>y</sub>	$f_{y}$
$0.04A_bf_y$	0.0594Abfy
$\sqrt{f_e'}$	$\overline{\sqrt{f_{c}'}}$
$0.0004Df_{y}$	0.00569Df <sub>y</sub>
$0.02Df_y$	0.0755D f <sub>y</sub>
$-\sqrt{f_c'}$	$\sqrt{f_a'}$
$0.0003Df_{y}$	0.00427Df,
87,000	6,117
$87,000 + f_{y}$	$6,117 + f_{y}$

<sup>\*</sup> $f'_c$  and  $f_y = psi$ ;  $A_b$  and D in inch units.

#### **PROBLEMS**

Note: In all problems the given loads are working-design values.

3-1 Design a square footing as assigned from the following table by ultimate-strength design;  $f_y = 60,000$  psi in all cases.

	w, in	$f_{c}'$ , psi	DL, kips	LL, kips	q <sub>allow</sub> , ksf
(a)	12	3,000	100	90	4.0
(b)	14	3,000	150	180	4.0
(c)	Î6	3,000	200	200	4.0
(d)	16	4,000	200	200	3.0
(e)	18	5,000	250	250	5.0
(f)	20	3,000	200	200	5.0

 $<sup>\</sup>dagger f_c'$  and  $f_y = \text{kg/sq cm}$ ;  $A_b$  and D in centimeter units.

3-2 Design a rectangular footing by ultimate-strength design with  $f_y = 60,000$  psi.

	w, in	$f_{\mathbf{c}}'$ , psi	DL, kips	LL, kips	$q_a$ , ksf	L or B, ft
(a)	12	3,000	100	100	3.0	6.0
(b)	15	3,000	150	150	3.0	8.0
(c)	18	4,000	240	280	4.0	20.0
(d)	12	3,000	100	100	6.0	6.0

- 3-3 Repeat Prob. 3-1 using metric units. Refer to Example 3-4 for units.
- 3-4 (a) Plot a graph of d versus  $f'_c$  for part (b) of Prob. 3-1, varying  $f'_c$  from 3 to 6,000 psi.
  - (b) Plot a graph of  $A_s$  versus  $f_y$  for part (b) of Prob. 3-1, varying  $f_y$  from 40 to 60,000 psi.
  - (c) What is the optimum  $f'_c$  and  $f_y$  values for part (b) of Prob. 3-1 based on material quantities?
- 3-5 Design a combined rectangular footing for the figure shown below. Take  $f_y = 60$  ksi,  $f_c' = 4$  ksi. Note: a1 is a with AK = 2.0 ft, etc.

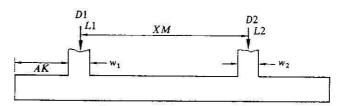


FIGURE P3-1

Key	Loads, kips		Column, in	AK, ft	XM, ft	$q_a$ , ksf
a	D1 = 50	D2 = 75	$w_1 = 12$	0.0	16.	2.0
al	L1 = 70	L2 = 75	$w_2 = 12$	2.0	16.	2.0
b	D1 = 80	D2 = 100	$w_1 = 12$	2.0	16.	2.5
<i>b</i> 1	L1 = 90	L2 = 100	$w_2 = 12$	0.0	16.	2.5
C	D1 = 120	D2 = 130	$w_1 = 15$	0.0	18.	3.0
cl	L1 = 100	L2 = 150	$w_2 = 15$	1.5	18.	3.0

- 3-6 Repeat the assigned part of Prob. 3-5 if B = 6 ft.
- 3-7 Repeat the assigned part of Prob. 3-5 if B = 8 ft.
- 3-8 Repeat the assigned part of Prob. 3-5 using metric units.
- 3-9 Repeat the assigned part of Prob. 3-5 using  $f_c' = 211$  kg/sq cm.
- 3-10 Design and detail a trapezoid footing for the given conditions. Take  $f_c' = 4$  ksi;  $f_y = 60$  ksi. Refer to the figure.

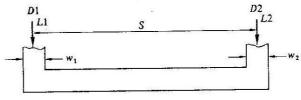


FIGURE P3-2

Key	Loads, kips		Column, in	S, ft	q <sub>a</sub> , ksf
a	D1 = 200	D2 = 160	$w_1 = 18$	20.0	4.0
	L1 = 240	L2 = 150	$w_2 = 18$	16.0	3.0
b	D1 = 120 L1 = 130	D2 = 120 L2 = 140	$w_1 = 16$ $w_2 = 16$	10.0	5.0
c	D1 = 300	D2 = 200	$w_1 = 24$	16.0	4.0
	L1 = 320	L2 = 210	$w_2 = 18$	31-41	

- 3-11 Repeat the assigned part of Prob. 3-10 using  $f_c^\prime=3$  ksi;  $f_c^\prime=5$  ksi.
- 3-12 Repeat the assigned part of Prob. 3-10 using  $f_y = 3,516$  kg/sq cm and metric units.

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### FINITE DIFFERENCES, FINITE-ELEMENT AND MATRIX ANALYSIS

#### 4-1 INTRODUCTION

Considerable effort has been and is being made in formulating mathematical models to define the response of soil to loads and the interaction of the interface elements of structures with the loaded soil mass. The mathematical model which has had the most success in recent years has been the finite-difference method. Basically this method replaces differential equations with difference equations, i.e., replacing the differential

$$dy_{\lim \to 0}$$
 with  $\Delta y =$  finite value and  $dx_{\lim \to 0}$  with  $\Delta x =$  finite value

More recently the literature has begun identifying the method of using finite or discrete member elements to make up the mathematical model of a system as the finite-element method. For many two-dimensional problems, such as combined footings or piles, the methods are very similar; for three-dimensional soil-stress problems or seepage problems, the methods may differ considerably and often do.

The author introduces herein still another concept termed matrix analysis to model mathematically many of the problems which formerly used finite-difference

methods. Actually, the finite-element method and the author's matrix analysis can be considered as the same technique; however, strictly speaking, all three are finiteelement methods.

The author prefers the matrix method as the simplest of the methods. It is the easiest of the methods to account for nonlinear soil behavior. The model is not hard to visualize or formulate, and it is the simplest method to use when a large number of different load conditions must be considered.

Both the finite-difference and matrix (or finite-element) method will be considered in this chapter.

### 4-2 FINITE-DIFFERENCE MATHEMATICS

Basically the finite-difference method analytically analyzes simplified geometrica changes in discrete lengths. Consider Fig. 4-1a, which illustrates a simple beam loader with a uniform load as shown. From mechanics of materials, one may write th following differential equations:

$$EIy \frac{d^4y}{dx^4} = -q \qquad \text{intensity of load}$$

$$EI \frac{d^3y}{dx^3} = -qx + \frac{qL}{2} \qquad \text{shear}$$

$$EI \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -\frac{qx^2}{2} + \frac{qLx}{2} \qquad \text{bending moment}$$

$$EI \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{qx^2}{6} + \frac{wLx^2}{4} - \frac{qL^3}{24} \qquad \text{slope}$$

$$EIy = -\frac{qx^4}{24} + \frac{qLx^3}{12} - \frac{qL^3x}{24} \qquad \text{deflection}$$

and substituting x = L/2 gives the deflection and moment at midspan as

$$y = -\frac{5qL^4}{384EI} = -\frac{qL^4}{76.8EI}$$

and

$$M = + \frac{qL^2}{8}$$

which are the expected values for this loading condition.

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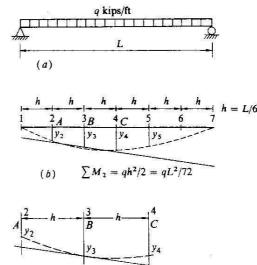


FIGURE 4-1 Beam and equivalent finite-difference approximation.

Referring to Fig. 4-1b, which is the elastic curve for the beam, and removing a segment ABC as in Fig. 4-1c, we see that the average slope at point 3 can be approximated as

$$\frac{dy}{dx} \approx \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}\Big|_3 = \frac{y_4 - y_3}{h}$$
 first forward difference

or

$$\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}\Big|_3 = \frac{y_3 - y_2}{h}$$
 first backward difference

Adding these two equations for a better value gives

$$2\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}\Big|_{3} = \frac{y_4}{h} - \frac{y_3}{h} + \frac{y_3}{h} - \frac{y_2}{h} = \frac{y_4 - y_2}{h}$$

or

$$\left| \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} \right|_3 = \frac{y_4 - y_2}{2h}$$
 first central difference (4-1)

The second derivative  $d^2y/dx^2 \approx \Delta^2y/\Delta x^2$  can be formed as

$$\frac{\Delta^2 y}{\Delta x^2} = \frac{\Delta(\Delta y / \Delta x)}{\Delta x}$$

which is equivalent to

$$\frac{1}{h} \left( \frac{y_4 - y_3}{h} - \frac{y_3 - y_2}{h} \right)$$

and simplifying, we obtain

$$\frac{\Delta^2 y}{\Delta x^2} = \frac{y_4 - 2y_3 + y_2}{h^2} \tag{4-2}$$

In a similar manner we obtain

$$\frac{\Delta^3 y}{\Delta x^2} = \frac{y_5 - 2y_4 + 2y_2 - y_1}{2h^3} \tag{4-3}$$

Equations (4-1) to (4-3) are central-difference finite-difference equations. Table 4-1 gives several forms of the difference equations which the reader may find useful.

Let us compare the finite-difference solution of the beam to the exact solution given earlier of

$$y_4 = -\frac{qL^4}{76.8EI}$$

Recognizing that EI  $d^2y/dx^2 \approx EI \Delta^2y/\Delta x^2 = M$ , we have at point 2 of Fig. 4-1b

$$y_1 - 2y_2 + y_3 = M_2 = \frac{5qL^2}{72EI} \frac{L^2}{36}$$

at point 3

$$y_2 - 2y_3 + y_4 = M_8 = \frac{qL^2}{9EI} \frac{L^2}{36}$$

at point 4

$$y_3 - 2y_4 + y_5 = M_4 = \frac{qL^2}{8EI} \frac{L^2}{36}$$

Table 4-1 TABLE OF FINITE DIFFERENCES

F-100 F-	
First central differences	$y'_n = \frac{y_{n+1} - y_{n-1}}{2(\Delta x)}$
*	$y_n'' = \frac{y_{n+1} - 2y_n + y_{n-1}}{(\Delta x)^2}$
Ŷ	$y_n''' = \frac{y_{n+2} - 2y_{n+1} + 2y_{n-1} - y_{n-2}}{2(\Delta x)^3}$
	$y_{u}^{""} = \frac{y_{n+2} - 4y_{n+1} + 6y_{n} - 4y_{n-1} + y_{n-2}}{(\Delta x)^{4}}$
Second central differences	$y'_{n} = \frac{-y_{n+2} + 8y_{n+1} - 8y_{n-1} + y_{n-2}}{12(\Delta x)}$
2 *	$y_n'' = \frac{-y_{n+2} + 16y_{n+1} - 30y_n + 16y_{n-1} - y_{n-2}}{12(\Delta x)^2}$
v	$y_n''' = \frac{-y_{n+3} + 8y_{n+2} - 13y_{n+1} + 13y_{n-1} - 8y_{n-2} + y_{n-3}}{8(\Delta x)^3}$
(6)	$y_n^{""} = \frac{-y_{n-3} + 12y_{n+2} - 39y_{n+1} + 56y_n - 39y_{n-1} + 12y_{n-2} - y_{n-3}}{6(\Delta x)^4}$
First forward differences	$y_n' = \frac{y_{n+1} - y_n}{\Delta x}$
	$y_n'' = \frac{y_{n+2} - 2y_{n+1} + y_n}{(\Delta x)^2}$
-9	$y''' = \frac{y_{n+3} - 3y_{n+2} + 3y_{n+1} - y_n}{(\Delta x)^3}$
	$y_n''' = \frac{y_{n+4} - 4y_{n+3} + 6y_{n+2} - 4y_{n+1} + y_n}{(\Delta x)^4}$

Also, from symmetry,  $y_3 = y_5$ . At the reaction  $y_1 = 0$ ; therefore, arranging terms, we have

$$-2y_2 + y_3 = \frac{5qL^4}{2,592EI}$$
$$y_2 - 2y_3 + y_4 = \frac{qL^4}{324EI}$$
$$2y_3 - 2y_4 = \frac{qL^4}{288EI}$$

Table 4-1 TABLE OF FINITE DIFFERENCES (Continued)

Second forward differences	$y_n' = \frac{-y_{n+2} + 4y_{n+1} - 3y_n}{2(\Delta x)}$	
	$y_n'' = \frac{-y_{n+3} + 4y_{n+2} - 5y_{n+1} + 2y_n}{(\Delta x)^2}$	
	$y_n''' = \frac{-3y_{n+4} + 14y_{n+3} - 24y_{n+2} + 18y_{n+1} - 5y_n}{2(\Delta x)^3}$	
29	$y_n'''' = \frac{-2y_{n+5} + 11_{n+4} - 24y_{n+3} + 26y_{n+2} - 14y_{n+1} + 3y_n}{(\Delta x)^4}$	•
First backward differences	$y_n' = \frac{y_n - y_{n-1}}{\Delta x}$	
	$y_n'' = \frac{y_n - 2y_{n-1} + y_{n-2}}{(\Delta x)^2}$	
	$y_n''' = \frac{y_n - 3y_{n-1} + 3y_{n-2} - y_{n-3}}{(\Delta x)^3}$	
Second backward differences	$y'_{n} = \frac{3y_{n} - 4y_{n-1} + y_{n-2}}{2(\Delta x)}$	
	$y_n'' = \frac{2y_n - 5y_{n-1} + 4y_{n-2} - y_{n-3}}{(\Delta x)^2}$	
	$y''' = \frac{5y_n - 18y_{n-1} + 24y_{n-2} - 14y_{n-3} + 3y_{n-4}}{2(\Delta x)^3}$	

Solving, we find

$$y_4 = \frac{qL^4}{75.13EI}$$

This is about 2 percent error too large. Fewer divisions would, of course, increase the

The finite-difference approach provides a means of solving both beam and plate problems. From the foundation engineering standpoint, the plate problem is a concrete slab on an elastic medium. Timoshenko et al. (1959) [see also Bowles (1968)] expands the differential equation of a plate

$$\frac{\partial^4 w}{\partial x^4} + \frac{2 \ \partial^4 w}{\partial x^2 \ \partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^4 w}{\partial y^4} = \frac{q}{D} + \frac{P}{D(\partial x \ \partial y)}$$

where  $D = [Et^3/12(1 - \mu^2)]$ 

E =modulus of elasticity of plate material

t =thickness of plate

 $\mu = Poisson's ratio$ 

Making a direct substitution of the y'''' central-difference expressions and a product of y'' for  $[2 \frac{\partial^4 w}{\partial x^2} \frac{\partial y^2}]$  from Table 4-1, and using  $\frac{\partial x}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial y} = h$ , we see that the finite-difference equation in terms of deflections at any point (node) within a plate using a square grid (see Fig. 4-2 for identification of subscripts) is

$$20w_0 - 8(w_T + w_B + w_R + w_L) + 2(w_{TL} + w_{TR} + w_{BL} + w_{BR}) + (w_{TT} + w_{BB} + w_{LL} + w_{RR}) = \frac{qh^4}{D} + \frac{Ph^2}{D}$$
(4-4)

The sign convention is based on +q and +P in the downward direction. The q term may be upward soil pressure or downward plate loading. The soil pressure is based on the concept of subgrade reaction  $k_s$  resulting in

$$-q = k_s w$$

Carrying this deflection term to the left side of Eq. (4-4) results in an increase of the term  $20w_0$  to

$$20w_0 + \frac{k_s h^4}{D}$$

Obviously dimensions must be consistent; e.g., if  $qh^4/D$  is in feet, then the deflection w is in feet.

Figure 4-2 illustrates the method of applying Eq. (4-4) to a point in a plate. If Eq. (4-4) is applied at a point within two nodes of an edge or at a corner, some of the deflections will fall off the plate. One of two approaches may be utilized: (1) use backward- or forward-difference expressions (partial reason for including in Table 4-1) or (2) consider the fictitious points off the plate and use

$$\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} + \mu \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} = 0 \qquad \text{moment perpendicular to edge} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial^3 w}{\partial x^3} + (2 - \mu) \frac{\partial^3 w}{\partial x \partial y^2} = 0$$
 shear perpendicular to edge = 0

with appropriate interchange of  $\partial x$ ,  $\partial y$  as required to provide enough extra equations to solve the problem. The U.S. Bureau of Reclamation (1954) solved this problem using a rectangular grid, which has been slightly modified by the author for computer programming (Fig. 4-3 and Table 4-2).

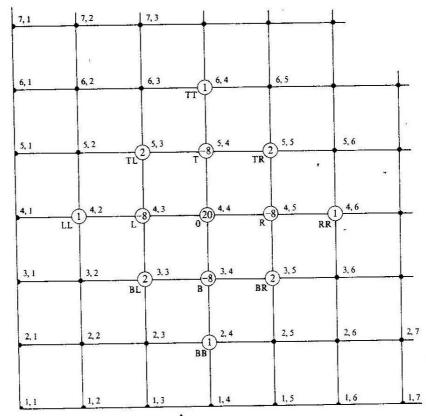
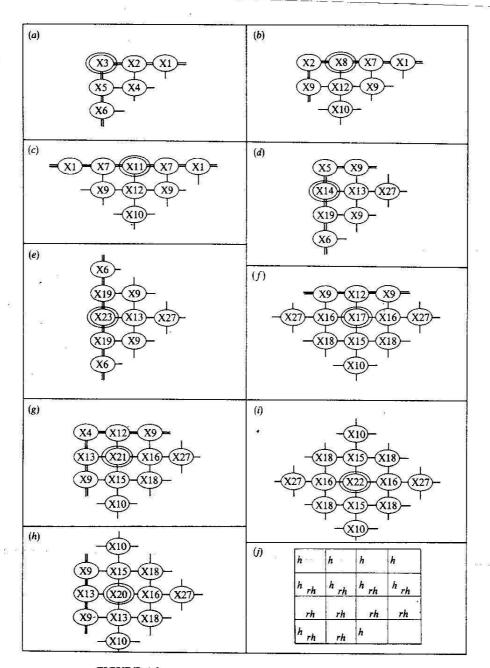


FIGURE 4-2 Method of applying Eq. (4-4) to a node more than two nodes from the edge of the plate. The node used above is located at (4,4) and is used 20 times. The node at (2,4) is used only once. Letters adjacent to nodes correspond to subscripts of Eq. (4-4).

A computer program to generate the coefficient matrix for any size mat using a square grid has been available [Bowles (1968)] for some time. The author has revised this program to include the rectangular grid and included it in Chap. 7 with results to be presented later.

### 4-3 MATRIX FORMULATION

Matrix-analysis procedures are powerful tools in solving many of the problems in foundation engineering, as the reader is about to discover. Since it is assumed that he has some knowledge of matrix operations, only a brief discussion is given here.



PIGURE 4-3
Deflection-coefficient matrix for indicated nodes. All horizontal grid dimensions are rh; all vertical values are h. Any set of grid coefficients is equated to nodal loads of  $Ph^4/Drh^2 - (k_s rh^2/D)w_{ij}$ . See Table 4-2 for identifications of coefficients.

Table 4-2 IDENTIFICATION OF VARIABLES IN FIG. 4-3 (USED IN COMPUTER PROGRAM OF CHAP. 7)

$X1 = \frac{1}{2r^4} (1 - \mu_2)$	$X2 = -\frac{1}{r^4} (1 - \mu^2) - \frac{2}{r^2} (1 - \mu)$
$X3 = \frac{1}{2r^4} (1 - \mu^2) + \frac{2}{r^2} (1 - \mu) + \frac{1}{2} (1 - \mu^2)$	$X4 = \frac{2}{r^2} \left( 1 - \mu \right)$
$X5 = -\frac{2}{r^2} (1 - \mu) - (1 - \mu^2)$	$X6 = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \mu^2)$
$X7 = \frac{2}{r^4} (1 - \mu^2) - \frac{2}{r^2} (1 - \mu)$	$X8 = \frac{5}{2r^4} (1 - \mu^2) + \frac{4}{r^2} (1 - \mu) + 1.0$
$X9 = \frac{1}{r^2} (2 - \mu)$	X10 = 1.0
$X11 = \frac{3}{r^4} (1 - \mu^2) + \frac{4}{r^2} (1 - \mu) + 1.0$	$X12 = -\frac{2}{r^2}(2 - \mu) - 2.0$
$X13 = -\frac{2}{r^4} - \frac{2}{r^2} (2 - \mu)$	$X14 = \frac{1}{r^4} + \frac{4}{r^2} (1 - \mu) + \frac{5}{2} (1 - \mu^2)$
$X15 = -\frac{4}{r^2} - 4$	$X16 = -\frac{4}{r^4} - \frac{4}{r^2}$
$X17 = \frac{6}{r^4} + \frac{8}{r^2} + 5$	$X18 = \frac{2}{r^2}$
$X19 = -\frac{2}{r^2}(1-\mu) - 2(1-\mu^2)$	$X20 = \frac{5}{r^4} + \frac{8}{r^2} + 6$
$X21 = \frac{5}{r^4} + \frac{8}{r^2} + 5$	$X22 = \frac{6}{r^4} + \frac{8}{r^2} + 6$
$X23 = \frac{1}{r^4} + \frac{4}{r^2} (1 - \mu) + 3(1 - \mu^2)$	$X27 = \frac{1}{r^4}$

A matrix as used in this book is the group of factored coefficients from a series of independent simultaneous equations; e.g.,

$$3x_1 + 4x_2 + 5x_3 = -5 (a)$$

$$7x_1 + 9x_2 = 34 (b)$$

$$8x_1 + 10x_2 + 5x_3 = 18 (c)$$

is a set of three simultaneous equations which one can solve by elimination to obtain

$$x_1 = 1$$
  $x_2 = 3$   $x_3 = -4$ 

In matrix notation one may write

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 7 & 9 & 0 \\ 8 & 10 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -5 \\ 34 \\ 18 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (4-5)

where it can be readily seen that column 1 represents the coefficients of  $x_1$  as

 $3x_1$  for Eq. (a)

 $7x_1$  for Eq. (b)

 $8x_1$  for Eq. (c)

Also noted is the use of a zero in Eq. (b) as the coefficient of  $x_3$ . This does not add or subtract from the set of equations. Note that there are exactly three independent equations (none are multiples of another equation in the set or its duplicate) with three unknowns. Solution of systems problems with more or fewer unknowns than equations, such as four equations with three unknowns or four unknowns and three equations is beyond the scope of this discussion. If there are exactly as many independent equations as unknowns, one always has a *square* matrix, which is a necessary condition for the following discussion. The matrix illustrated is  $3 \times 3$ . Writing the full matrix is cumbersome, and a shorthand technique has developed so that the set of Eqs. (4-5) can also be written

$$A_{3\times 3}X_{3\times 1} = C_{3\times 1} \tag{4-6}$$

indicating that the coefficient matrix is of size  $3 \times 3$ , the X matrix is a column of  $3 \times 1$ , and the constant matrix is a column of  $3 \times 1$ . This form is useful for the beginner as it is easy to see whether the system is dimensionally (in size not units) correct. A method of checking the matrix dimensions is to cancel like *interior* dimensions, as illustrated in rewriting Eq. (4-6) below with canceled values shown

$$A_{3\times 3}X_{3\times 1} = C_{3\times 1} \tag{4-6a}$$

obtaining an equality of matrix size of

$$3 \times 1 = 3 \times 1$$

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  Only because there are some nonzero  $x_3$  values. It would not be legal to add an  $x_4$  and an extra column and row of zeros.

$$AX = C (4-7)$$

it being understood that A is a  $3 \times 3$  and X and C are  $3 \times 1$  matrices.

One can solve Eq. (4-7) for X to obtain

$$X = \frac{C}{4}$$

However, A is a matrix and a solution is not obtained without further operation on A as

$$X = A^{-1}C \tag{4-8}$$

where  $A^{-1}$  is the inverse (or invert) of the matrix A and must be placed with respect to C as shown. The reason is that in matrix usage

$$CA^{-1} \neq A^{-1}C$$

The transpose of a matrix  $A = A^T$  is a rotation of the given matrix  $90^{\circ}$  and interchanging. The transposed A matrix of Eq. (4-5) is

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 7 & 8 \\ 4 & 9 & 10 \\ 5 & 0 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Thus, the first column of the  $A^T$  matrix is the first row of the A matrix, the second column of the  $A^T$  is the second row of A, etc.

At this point several other peculiarities of matrix operations will be presented. Given two matrices A, B of equal size,

$$A + B = B + A$$
$$A - B = B - A$$
$$AB \neq BA$$

The sum of two (or more matrices) of equal size is a new matrix of the same size, as follows. Find  $A + A^{T} = F$ , where A is the matrix of Eq. (4-5)

$$F = \begin{bmatrix} 3+3 & 7+4 & 8+5 \\ 4+7 & 9+9 & 10+0 \\ 5+8 & 0+10 & 5+5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 11 & 13 \\ 11 & 18 & 10 \\ 13 & 10 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix F above illustrates why only matrices of equal size can be added or subtracted.

Also given A, B and the matrix of Eq. (4-5),

$$BAX = BC$$

i.e., both sides of a matrix can be multiplied by a new matrix without changing the equality. This is an especially powerful tool when it is difficult to determine whether equations are, in fact, independent. For example, a ring-foundation problem the author worked had 20 unknown deflections, but 41 apparently independent equations could be written (20 moment, 20 shear, and  $\sum F_v = 0$ ); it was obvious that some of the equations were dependent, but one could not tell by looking at the problem which were. Nor did trying various combinations of equations work with predictable results. In matrix notation, one had the following system, for this ring problem

$$A_{41\times 20}X_{20\times 1}=C_{41\times 1}$$

solving

$$X_{20\times 1} = A_{41\times 20}^{-1} C_{41\times 1}$$

but a nonsquare matrix cannot be inverted. Therefore, premultiply both sides of the equation by  $A^T$ 

$$A_{20\times 41}^T A_{41\times 20} X_{20\times 1} = A_{20\times 41}^T C_{41\times 1}$$

Solving for X gives

$$X_{20\times 1} = [A^T A]_{20\times 20}^{-1} A^T C_{20\times 1}$$

The matrix  $A^T$  was used for convenience as a premultiplier since it was known, although any other nonzero matrix of size  $20 \times 41$  could have been used.

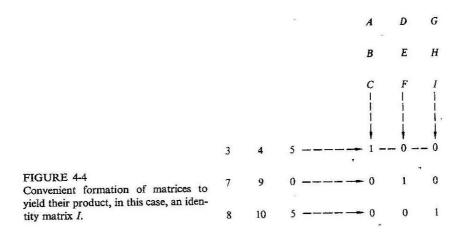
An identity matrix I is defined as a unit diagonal matrix. An identity matrix of size  $3 \times 3$  is

$$I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

A unique property of matrices is

$$AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I (4-9)$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> A matrix with a zero on the main diagonal or with a determinant of zero is a non-singular matrix (one with more than one solution) and cannot be inverted. Use of dependent equations to build a square matrix will result in a determinant of zero. In many problems changing the order of forming the equations will remove the zero 'from the diagonal. Many computer-inversion routines check for zeros on the main diagonal, interchange the equations to move the zero, then invert the matrix. None of the problems in this text form directly with a zero on the main diagonal.



or the product of a matrix and its inverse regardless of order (only exception to order of multiplication) is an identity matrix. Also, let us multiply Eq. (4-9) by  $A^{-1}$ :

$$A^{-1}AA^{-1} = A^{-1}I$$

out

$$AA^{-1} = I$$
 also  $A^{-1}A$ 

:herefore

$$A^{-1}I = A^{-1}I$$

and, dividing both sides by  $A^{-1}$ ,

$$I = I$$

The use of the identity matrix is useful in longhand inverting of a matrix. Referring to Fig. 4-4, the following three simultaneous equations can be written using matrix methods as a first step in inverting the given matrix. The constants 1, 0, 0 are, of course, the first column of the identity matrix.

$$3A + 4B + 5C = 1$$
  
 $7A + 9B + 0C = 0$   
 $8A + 10B + 5C = 0$ 

Solving simultaneously, we have

$$A = -3.000$$
  $B = 2.333$   $C = 0.133$ 

Next, the second column of the inverse matrix multiplied by each row in turn of the original matrix gives the second column of the identity matrix of 0, 1, 0; thus

$$3D + 4E + 5F = 0$$
  
 $7D + 9E + 0F = 1$   
 $8D + 10E + 5F = 0$ 

Solving gives

$$D = -2.000$$
  $E = 1.667$   $F = 0.133$ 

Repeat the procedure for the third column of the inverse matrix and equate to the corresponding terms in the third column of the identity matrix to obtain

$$3G + 4H + 5I = 0$$
$$7G + 9H + 0I = 0$$
$$8G + 10H + 5I = 1$$

and, solving,

$$G = 3.000$$
  $H = -2.333$   $I = 0.067$ 

Re-forming these values into the  $A^{-1}$  matrix, we obtain for the original A matrix of Eq. (4-5) the inverse matrix

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -3.000 & -2.000 & 3.000 \\ 2.333 & 1.667 & -2.333 \\ 0.133 & -0.133 & 0.067 \end{bmatrix}$$
(4-10)

Figure 4-5 illustrates solving for values of  $X_i$  using Eq. (4-10) and the C matrix of Eq. (4-5).

The longhand process of inverting a matrix is difficult except for the special case of a  $2 \times 2$  matrix. A  $2 \times 2$  matrix is inverted as follows: Given,  $2 \times 2$  matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

find the A inverse so that  $A^{-1}A = I$ .

The solution proceeds as follows:

- 1 Compute value of the determinant =  $2 \times 5 4 \times 3 = -2$ .
- 2 Reverse numbers on main diagonal (left to right down) and reverse signs on

$$A^{-1}C = X \qquad [C] = \begin{bmatrix} -5.0 \\ +34.0 \\ +18.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -3.000 & -2.000 & 3.000 \\ 2.333 & 1.667 & -2.333 \\ 0.133 & -0.133 & 0.067 \end{bmatrix} - - 15.00 - 68.00 + 54.0 = +1 = X_1$$

$$- - - 11.67 + 56.67 - 42.0 = +3 = X_2$$

$$- - - 0.67 - 4.53 + 1.20 = -4 = X_3$$

FIGURE 4-5 Finding the solution of the system of equations using the product of the  $A^{-1}$ and the C matrices.

minor diagonal (left to right up) and divide by the value of the determinant, to obtain

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{-2} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -3 \\ -4 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### 3 Check results:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{array}{c} -\frac{5}{2} \times 2 + 3 \times 2 = +1 \\ -\frac{5}{2} \times 4 + 5 \times 2 = 0 \\ \frac{3}{2} \times 2 + 3(-1) = 0 \\ \frac{3}{2} \times 4 + 5(-1) = +1 \end{array}$$

Since an identity matrix is obtained, the inverse is correct.

Aside from this special case, it is generally very difficult to invert a matrix by hand. As noted in Eq. (4-10), the invert required finding nine unknown values in the  $A^{-1}$  matrix. This is equivalent to nine simultaneous equations or  $M \times M$  equations, where M is the size of the matrix. The only practical means of doing this formidable task is to use the computer. Even on the computer, problems arise because of storage within the working part of the computer (core) and roundoff errors from using large numbers and large quantities of numbers. A large matrix size may require that significant digits be carried to a larger number of digits than the computer's capability (usually 16 in double precision). This type of error can be found, however, by either of two methods:

- $I \quad A^{-1}A \neq I$  indicates an error.
- 2  $X = A^{-1}C$  with back substitution into the original equations to find that  $AX \neq C$ , indicating that the X values obtained from  $A^{-1}$  are in error.

Special techniques are available to correct the X values. One technique is to obtain a value

$$\Delta C = C_{\text{computed}} - C_{\text{given}}$$

Now compute the quantity  $\Delta X$  as

$$\Delta X = A^{-1} \Delta C$$

The more refined value of X is computed as

$$X_c = X - \Delta X$$

In some cases the errors may not require correction, depending on how precise the input data are.

Much effort has been (and is currently being) expended to obtain methods of inverting large matrices. For example assume computer core is:

Core 20,000 words
Program 5,000 words
Available\* 15,000 words

A matrix of M = 100 is of computer usage size of  $M^2$ 

$$M^2 = \begin{cases} 10,000 & \text{single precision} \\ 20,000 & \text{double precision} \end{cases}$$

One must either use single-precision computations with roundoff errors or some other technique, such as matrix partitioning, product inverse [Orchard-Hays (1968)], iterative, or relaxation [Mantell and Marron (1962)] techniques.

The problems in this text can (with two exceptions) be solved without using special techniques since the matrix to be inverted is generally less than M=70. The included computer programs are reasonably efficient in conserving computer core space, so that maximum core consumption is less than 20,000 words including the use of double-precision computations where required.

<sup>\*</sup> Actually less, since certain operational and bookkeeping requirements will consume part of this; every computer has this problem.

#### 4-4 COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR INVERTING A MATRIX

This computer program uses the Gauss-Jordan method [James et al. (1965)] of elimination. It does not check for a zero on the diagonal; therefore, the user must scan the input data to alter the order of equations to use this program. This program can solve 30 to 35 equations using double precision with very little loss of accuracy. It can solve about 100 equations with little loss of computational accuracy if the matrix to be inverted is sparse (has mostly zeros), as is the case with most structural and foundation engineering problems.

#### Matrix-Inversion Routine.

The following program inverts any matrix with no zero on the diagonal. As given, the size is controlled by the DIMENSION (50,50) to size  $50 \times 50$ .

```
Line
                                                             Operation
                                                              READ TITLE, N (two cards)
                                                              N = \text{size of matrix}, as 4 for 4 \times 4, 8 for 8 \times 8, etc.
                    13
                                                              READ A(L,I) the matrix one row at a time at up to eight values per card. Start each row
                                                              with a new data card
                                                              READ C(I) constants
21 - 30
                                                             Inversion routine
 36-39
                                                              Computes X values
                                                                               MATRIX INVERSION SUBROUTINE --- IF DESIRED TO INCREASE

SIZE OF MATRIX CHANGE DIMENSION STATEMENT
DIMENSION A(50,50), C(50), X(50), TITLE(20)
DOUBLE PRECISION A.C.X

5000 ÆEAD(1,1000,END=150) TITLE,N
1000 ÆEORMAT(2004,7,15)
                                                                        | Coorrespond |
```

#### **PROBLEMS**

4-1 Invert the following matrices by hand

(a) 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 6 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

and check that  $A^{-1}A = I$ .

4-2 Assume that

(a) 
$$2X_1 + 4X_2 = 16$$
  
 $6X_1 + 3X_2 = 21$   
(b)  $3X_1 + 5X_2 = 8$   
 $X_1 + 4X_2 = 10$ 

Using the  $A^{-1}$  matrices of Prob. 4-1, find  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ .

Ans. (a) 
$$X_1 = 2$$

- 4-3 What is the product of the two matrices of Prob. 4-1?
- 4-4 What is the difference of the two matrices of Prob. 4-1? The sum?
- 4-5. Using the invert program of Sec. 4-4, find the inverse and the values of X(I) for the following matrix.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 & 7 & 9 \\ 8 & 6 & 5 & 2 \\ 7 & 4 & 1 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ X_3 \\ X_4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 18 \\ 32 \\ 19 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

Partial Ans. 
$$A^{-1}(1,1) = -0.60870$$
,  $X(1) = 0.49068$ ;  $X(4) = -1.14286$ 

4-6 Using the invert program of Sec. 4-4, find the inverse and the values of X(I) for the following matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 9 & 8 & 7 & 6 & 3 \\ 8 & 5 & 4 & 1 & 2 \\ 7 & 6 & 3 & 9 & 2 \\ 6 & 4 & 3 & 9 & 7 \\ 3 & 6 & 8 & 4 & 12 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \\ X_3 \\ X_4 \\ X_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 42 \\ 87 \\ 93 \\ 51 \end{bmatrix}$$

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U.S. BUREAU OF RECLAMATION (1954): Moments and Reactions for Rectangular Plates Fixed along Three Edges and Free along the Fourth, Rep. 30, Denver, Colo.

# THE BEAM ON AN ELASTIC FOUNDATION: MATRIX SOLUTION

#### 5-1 INTRODUCTION

In recent years treating continuous footings, i.e., footings with two or more columns in a line, as beams on an elastic foundation has been receiving more and more attention. Two major factors justify this trend: (1) the resulting solution provides a more realistic distribution of longitudinal bending moment in the member, and (2) engineers currently are tending to use more mathematical and refined approaches to the solution of engineering problems.

The author provides still another reason for using the beam on an elastic foundation, namely, the modulus-of-subgrade reaction is not a significant factor in the practical range of footing flexural rigidity EI and the modulus-of-subgrade reaction  $k_s$ . The use of

$$k_s = SF \times 12q_a$$
 fps units

has been found to give consistently reliable and reasonable values of both deflections and computed soil pressure to compare with the given allowable soil pressure  $q_a$ .

Historically, there are three basic approaches to the problem of a beam on an elastic foundation: (1) the so-called Winkler approach, proposed by E. Winkler in

about 1867, treats the soil mass supporting the foundation as a series of springs on which the structural member is supported; (2) the second, generally credited to Biot (1937) with elaboration by Ohde [see appendix of Vesić and Johnson (1963)] treats the foundation bed as an elastic solid; (3) the third solves the differential equation of the soil-structure interaction problem. Hetenyi (1946) contributed an entire text to the third solution and considered various boundary conditions. None of the solutions just cited, however, considered or accounted for computed soil tension or for foundation deflections into the nonlinear range of soil behavior. The Hetenyi solution is treated in Chap. 6.

Due to the complexity of the problem, especially where beams of finite length are used (as in most practical problems), many engineers have advocated using office aids in the form of tabulated solutions [Dodge (1964), Gazis (1958), Iyengar et al. (1965), Reti (1967), Wölfer (1969)]. Others have proposed approximate solutions [Cheung and Nag (1968), Levinton (1949), Malter (1960), Popov (1951)]. Of the approximate solutions, the finite-difference method [Malter (1960), Bowles (1968)] using the Winkler foundation concept has so far been the easiest to use in the author's opinion, especially since a computer program has been readily available [Bowles (1968), appendix].

The finite-difference solution, however, has several disadvantages, of which the principal ones are as follows:

- 1 It is troublesome to account for general boundary conditions because of the formulation of the coefficient matrix.
- 2 It is difficult to correct for negative deflections, i.e., eliminating the Winkler springs when the footing tends to separate from the soil foundation.
- 3 It is fairly difficult to write a computer program to generate a general coefficient matrix.
- 4 It is extremely difficult to account for different load conditions.
- 5 It is difficult to account for nonlinear soil deformation.

The finite-element method proposed by the author is somewhat similar to the finite-difference solution but eliminates the five major difficulties just cited.

#### 5-2 THE MATRIX (OR FINITE-ELEMENT) SOLUTION

At a selected node of any structure (Fig. 5-1), the equation

$$P_i = A_i F_i \tag{a}$$

is valid. This equation simply equates the external force P to the internal force F using a constant of proportionality A.

For a set of nodes and introducing matrix notation (deleting subscripts and omitting braces and brackets sometimes used), this becomes

$$P = AF (5-1)$$

Also relating the internal deformation of the structural members at the node to the external nodal displacement and considering the same set of nodes for Eq. (5-1) above gives

$$e = BX (5-2)$$

It can be shown [Wang (1970), Laursen (1969)] that the B matrix is the transpose of the A matrix  $(B = A^T)$ ; thus

$$e = A^T X$$

The internal force in the ith member  $F_i$  is related to the internal member displacements e; as

$$F_i = S_i e_i$$

and for all the members this becomes in matrix notation

$$F = Se (5-3)$$

Equations (5-1) to (5-3) are the fundamental equations of the displacement, or stiffness, method of matrix analysis.

Substituting Eq. (5-2) into (5-3), we obtain

$$F = SA^T X \tag{b}$$

Substitution of Eq. (b) into (5-1) gives

$$P = ASA^{T}X (c)$$

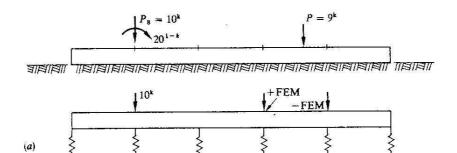
Note the order of terms and the use of  $A^T = B$ . Equation (c) is solved for X by inverting the square matrix  $ASA^{T}$  of size  $P \times P$  to obtain

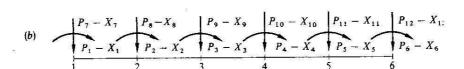
$$X = \left[ ASA^{T} \right]^{-1} P \tag{d}$$

By substitution of the X's obtained from Eq. (d) into Eq. (b) the desired internal member forces at the selected nodes are obtained.

#### THE A MATRIX 5-3

Consider the beam supported on a system of springs with constant K, as shown in Fig. 5-1. In Fig. 5-1b the beam of Fig. 5-1a has been coded for applying external joint moments  $P_1$  through  $P_6$  with corresponding joint rotations  $X_1$  through  $X_6$ 

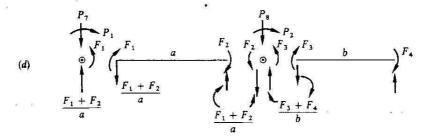




$$F_{1}-e_{1} \quad F_{2}-e_{2} \quad F_{3}-e_{3} \quad F_{4}-e_{4} \quad F_{5}-e_{5} \quad F_{6}-e_{6} \quad F_{7}-e_{7} \quad F_{8}-e_{8} \quad F_{9}-e_{9} \quad F_{10}-e_{10}$$

$$(c) \quad \begin{cases} a \\ b \\ \end{cases} \qquad \begin{cases} b \\ \end{cases} \qquad \begin{cases} c \\ \end{cases} \qquad \begin{cases} d \\ \end{cases} \qquad \begin{cases} e \\ \end{cases} \qquad \begin{cases} e \\ \end{cases} \qquad \begin{cases} F_{11}-e_{11} \\ \end{cases} \qquad F_{12}-e_{12} \quad F_{13}-e_{13} \quad F_{14}-e_{14} \quad F_{15}-e_{15} \quad F_{16}-e_{16} \end{cases}$$

$$a = b = c = d = e = \text{const.} = L/5$$



#### FIGURE 5-1

The beam on an elastic foundation: (a) Winkler model with the load between nodes prorated to adjacent nodes and including fixed-end moments; (b) the P-X coding; (c) the internal-force deformation F-e coding; (d) forming the statics matrix A considering free bodies at joints (nodes) 1 and 2.

and external joint forces in the vertical direction  $P_7$  through  $P_{12}$  with corresponding joint vertical translations  $X_7$  through  $X_{12}$ . This is called the P-X diagram.

Note that P may be either an external moment or force and X is either a rotation or translation. The order of numbering the P's is for convenience in building the S matrix of Sec. 5-5.

Next an examination of Fig. 5-1c shows that we have applied internal-member forces at each end of each of the six node points, which divides the beam into five finite elements.

Note that  $F_1$  through  $F_{10}$  are internal-element end moments;  $F_{11}$  through  $F_{16}$  are internal "spring" forces. Also  $e_1$  through  $e_{10}$  are element end rotations;  $e_{12}$  through  $e_{16}$  are spring compressions.

It should be evident that there is a relationship between the external and internal nodal forces. From statics we can write this relationship in condensed form as

where A relates the external to internal forces. Expanding this equation by selected examples, we have (Fig. 5-1d) at joint 1 (and on the node not on the member; note soil spring acts on node)

$$P_1 - F_1 = 0 \tag{a}$$

or

$$P_1 = F_1 \tag{b}$$

likewise

$$P_7 - \frac{F_1}{a} - \frac{F_2}{a} + F_{11} = 0 (c)$$

$$P_7 = \frac{F_1}{a} + \frac{F_2}{a} - F_{11} \tag{d}$$

At joint 2 to satisfy moments

$$P_2 = F_2 + F_3 (e)$$

and to satisfy  $\sum F_v = 0$  (note that all segment lengths are equal in derivation and as used in computer program)

$$P_8 = -\frac{F_1}{a} - \frac{F_2}{a} + \frac{F_3}{a} + \frac{F_4}{a} - F_{12} \tag{f}$$

At joint 6, summing moments gives

$$P_6 = F_{10} \tag{g}$$

and summing vertical forces, we have

$$P_{12} = -\frac{F_9}{a} - \frac{F_{10}}{a} - F_{16} \tag{h}$$

Figure 5-2a displays the complete A matrix for the beam. Note that zeros (not shown) are used to fill out the locations which are blank, analogous to Eq. (4-5). The particular coding system is used so that a convenient pattern is formed as illustrated. If more divisions are used, the pattern is exactly the same only the resulting matrix is larger. The size of this one is found as follows. Let

$$N = \text{number of elements} = 5$$

$$P = 2N + 2 = 12 = NP$$

$$F = 3N + 1 = 16 = NF$$

or A is of size  $NP \times NF$ .

#### 5-4 THE B MATRIX

If joint 1 rotates X = 1 rad, it is evident that since the soil spring cannot resist rotation small-deflection theory),  $e_1$  rotates as follows:

$$e_1 = X_1 + \frac{X_7}{a} - \frac{X_8}{a}$$

Likewise,

$$e_2 = X_2 + \frac{X_7}{a} - \frac{X_8}{a}$$

$$e_3 = X_2 + \frac{X_8}{a} - \frac{X_9}{a}$$

$$e_4 = X_3 + \frac{X_8}{a} - \frac{X_9}{a}$$

The internal spring deformations  $e_{11}$  through  $e_{16}$  are

$$e_{1i} = -X_7$$

$$e_{12} = -X_8$$

. . . . . . . . . . . .

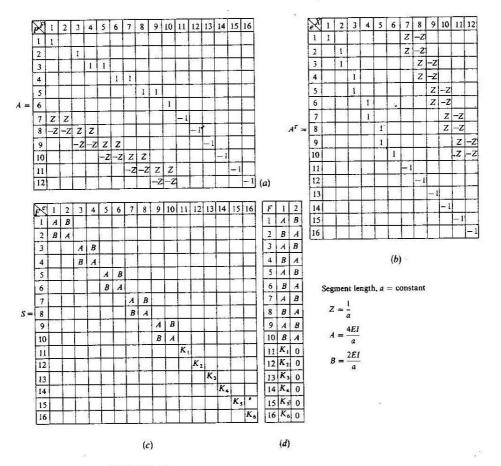


FIGURE 5-2

The necessary finite-element matrices (except the P matrix) for Fig. 5-1: (a) statics matrix; (b) deformation matrix,  $B = A^T$ ; (c) stiffness matrix S; (d) S matrix in two columns.

The completed B matrix is illustrated in Fig. 5-2b. Note that it is precisely A transpose and it generally need not be formed since

$$B = A^{T}$$

$$A^{T}(I,J) = A(J,I)$$

and the computer can be programmed to obtain the needed  $A^{T}(I,J)$  values directly from the A(I,J) matrix.

#### 5-5 THE S MATRIX

Consider Fig. 5-3 and recall from conjugate-beam principles that the end slopes  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  are

$$\frac{F_1L}{3EI} - \frac{F_2L}{6EI} = e_1 \tag{i}$$

$$-\frac{F_1 L}{6EI} + \frac{F_2 L}{3EI} = e_2 (j)$$

Solving Eqs. (g) and (h) simultaneously for the first segment of Fig. 5-1, where a=L, we obtain

$$F_1 = \frac{4EI}{a} e_1 + \frac{2EI}{a} e_2$$

$$F_2 = \frac{2EI}{a}e_1 + \frac{4EI}{a}e_2$$

and similarly

$$F_3 = \frac{4EI}{b} e_3 + \frac{2EI}{b} e_4$$

$$F_4 = \frac{2EI}{b} e_3 + \frac{4EI}{b} e_4$$

The force  $F_{11}$  is simply

$$F_{11} = K_1 e_{11}$$

The symbol K is used here since the spring-deflection equation is

$$F = K\delta$$

The soil "spring" will have units of  $FL^{-1}$  obtained from the modulus-of-subgrade reaction  $k_s$ , footing width B, and segment length as

$$K_1 = aBk_s$$

$$K_2 = \frac{a+b}{2} Bk_s$$

$$K_6 = eBk_s$$

and if  $a = b = c \cdots = e = h$ ,

$$K_{s} = Bhk_{s}$$

Note the use of a full contributing end area rather than one-half, as has been used in the past [Bowles (1968)]. The reason is an attempt to allow for increased edge

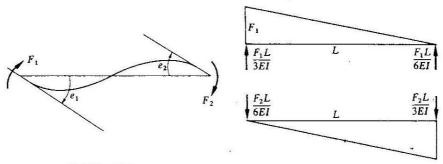


FIGURE 5-3 Relationship between internal forces and deformations using conjugate-beam principles.

pressure (Sec. 3-6) and to provide better computed agreement with measured values (Sec. 5-10).

One could use some other method of building spring constants. If one wished to assume a linear or parabolic variation of  $k_s$  along the foundation, the use of some procedure such as in Bowles (1968, chap. 5) could be used. The author has found that, in general, the constant  $k_s$  assumed here is adequate. Local variation in  $k_s$  as soft spots, holes, etc., can be accounted for by reading particular value(s) into the S matrix. The included computer program allows this to be done.

The complete S matrix is shown in Fig. 5-2c and in two columns in Fig. 5-2d. Forming and using the S matrix in two columns reduces computer storage from  $16^2$  = 256 down to  $2 \times 16 = 32$  records.

#### THE P MATRIX 5-6

The coding of Fig. 5-1b displays  $P_i$  as the external force (moment) acting at a joint depending on the i subscript. Expanding Eqs. (a) through (h), we have

$$P_{1} = F_{1} + 0F_{2} + 0F_{3} + \cdots + 0F_{16}$$

$$P_{2} = 0F_{1} + F_{2} + F_{3} + \cdots + 0F_{16}$$

$$P_{3} = 0F_{1} + 0F_{2} + 0F_{3} + F_{4} + F_{5} + \cdots + 0F_{16}$$

$$\cdots$$

$$P_{7} = \frac{F_{1}}{a} + \frac{F_{2}}{b} + \cdots - F_{11} + \cdots + 0F_{16}$$

$$\cdots$$

$$P_{12} = 0F_{1} + 0F_{2} \cdots - \frac{F_{9}}{e} - \frac{F_{10}}{e} + \cdots - F_{16}$$

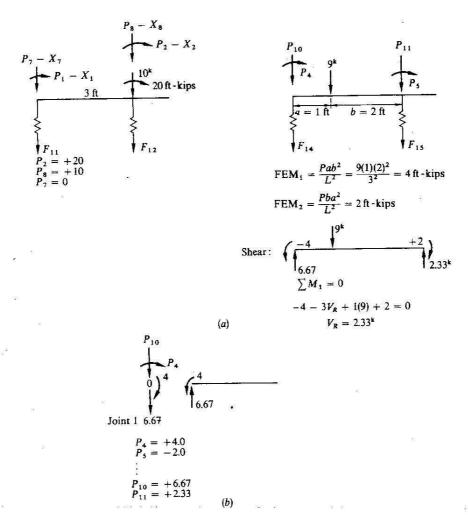


FIGURE 5-4 Relationship between external beam loads and the P matrix for beam of Fig. 5-1.

From this expansion it is evident that the P values are the external forces on the nodes and may be zero if no forces exist. It is also evident that if the external forces are in the direction of the P coding, they have plus signs in the P matrix.

The reader should also be aware that loads located between node points will contribute both *shear* and *fixed-end-moment P* forces at the node. Consider the two examples in Fig. 5-4. In Fig. 5-4a the load is  $P_2 = 20$  and is a moment by inspection.

P<sub>8</sub> is 10 kips since the 10 is acting on the node (or joint) in the same direction as the coding of P<sub>8</sub>. Figure 5-4b has the load between nodes. It is prorated as in the figure,

$$FEM_1 = \frac{Pab^2}{L^2} \qquad \text{or} \qquad FEM_2 = \frac{Pba^2}{L^2} \tag{5-4}$$

with a and b identified in Fig. 5-4b. The reader may recall that the fixed-end moment for a uniformly distributed load is

$$FEM = \frac{wL^2}{12} \tag{5-5}$$

Signs are as shown in Fig. 5-4 for computation of shear.

If FEMs are used, the resulting F values of moment at any node will not compute equal when using Eq. (b), but will differ by the FEM. The correct moment value is obtained by adding algebraically the F value from Eq. (b) and the FEM.

### 5-7 BEAM WEIGHTLESS OR WITH WEIGHT?

When the conventional design procedure of Chap. 3 is used, the beam may properly be considered weightless as the increase in soil pressure due to weight exactly cancels the beam weight. The conventional procedures, however, do not usually consider the columns applying moment to the footing as well as axial load.

Now consider the situation of Fig. 5-5a, where a beam is loaded with a couple. If the beam is weightless, the situation of Fig. 5-5b is obtained no matter how small the couple. This is not the physical situation, where the condition of Fig. 5-5b is obtained only if the couple is larger than the bending moment along the beam due to its self weight. It may be added that the situation of Fig. 5-5b is obtained only because with the method outlined herein we are able to remove the "negative" soil springs since no tension is allowed when the footing separates from the soil.

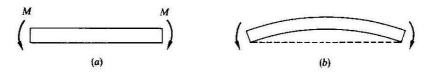


FIGURE 5-5 Weightless beam with equal end moments.

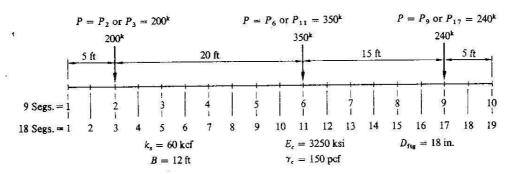


FIGURE 5-6 Problem used to illustrate number of segments on solution.

As the weight per linear foot of a concrete footing may be appreciable, the weight has been included in the computer program to be more realistic if the footing tends to separate from the soil. The beam weight is simply prorated to the node points.

A comparison of several weightless beams versus the same beams with beam weight indicates that the beams with weight compute with about 1 to 3 percent smaller bending moments (as would be expected) than the weightless beam. Obviously the soil pressure for the weightless beam is slightly less than for the beam with weight, and the computed deflections are slightly larger as the "springs" must also carry the footing weight.

## 5-8 FINITE-ELEMENT SOLUTION OF THE BEAM ON AN ELASTIC FOUNDATION

Normally about 10 divisions of a beam should be taken. The number of divisions will depend somewhat on length and loading. Figure 5-6 illustrates a situation where 10 and 19 nodes were used with three columns. The results were as follows:

$M_{\mathrm{max}}$	Node	$M_{ m min}$	Node
581,7	6	-274.8	4
595.8	11	-280.3	7
		- IIIA	581.7 6 -274.8

The average error when the larger number of divisions is assumed more correct was about -2 percent in this case. Other factors may also influence the result, however, since a comparison of the results of the experiments of Vesić and Johnson (1963) using 10 or 20 divisions gave much larger computed discrepancies using 20 divisions.

It is logical to assume that if the elastic line is essentially in single curvature or the beam length is such that a smooth, slow transition from concave to convex curvature can be made, then fewer divisions are needed to describe the curvature; 10 to 15 divisions generally are adequate. Ten divisions require a matrix inversion of 22 × 22. Twenty divisions require a matrix inversion of 42 × 42, which is within the capability of most digital computers currently available.

#### 5-9 EXAMPLES

The finite-element method will be illustrated with the following examples.

EXAMPLE 5-1 Referring to Fig. E5-1.1 (same number of nodes as Fig. 5-1), which is the beam of Example 3-3, obtain a finite-element solution. Note that the beam has been drawn on the first page of the computer output. This problem is shown in complete detail including statics checks in Figs. E5-1.1 to E5-1.4.

SOLUTION Data cards as follows (also shown on output):

Card	Data	ı												
1	TITI	LE J	ЕВ	owle	s···etc.									
	UT1	UT	2	UT3	UT4	UT5		UT6			FU1	FU2	FU3	FU4
2	FT	IN		KIPS	FT-KI	PS KIPS	SQ FT	KIPS/	CU I	$\mathbf{FT}$	12.	1.0	144.	0
	Unit	s care	i for	fos	units for	format and	certain	internal	prog	ram	CONV	ersions	(FU1-	FU4
	KL		LI											
3	5	0	1		5 division	s, full list	with LIS	T = 1						
	XL	BX	D	K	XK EL	AS XM.	AX U	TWTIN	LI	L2				
4	20.	10.	1.6	67	48. 468	000. 1.50	.15		2	0				
	Note	e use	of a	ll fo	ot units e	cept XMA	X; sinc	e both c	colum	ns a	re bet	ween n	odes L	A = 2
		L2 =										•		
	Mi	N1	T	Y	COLLD	AMOM	(line 10	09)						
5	1	2	2.	2.	310.	0.0	(colum	<b>n</b> 1)						
6	5	6	2.	2.	310.	0.0	(colum	ın 2)						

This is input data; program gives output shown.

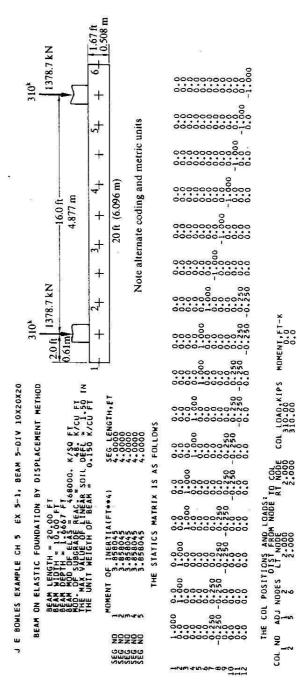


FIGURE E5-1.1

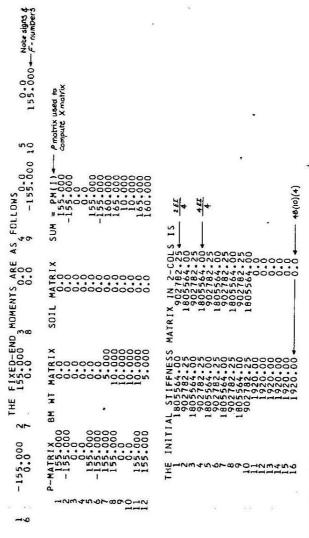


FIGURE E5-1.2

FIGURE E5-1.3

EXAMPLE 5-2 Repeat Example 5-1 using 10 divisions.

SOLUTION Only the data cards requiring changes are shown.

Card	Data	ì		
3	10	0	1	
	LIST	$\Gamma = 1 g$	ives fui	l listing (not shown)
4				48. 468000, 1.50 .150 0 2
				s at nodes, $L2 = 2$ , $L1 = 0$
	If be	am wei	ght is n	not to be included, use 0. instead of 0.150
5	2	310.		
6	10	3.10	0.	(·····-

Partial output is shown in Figs. E5-2.1 and E5-2.2.

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J E BOWLES CONT FTG FOR TEXT CH 5, EX 5-2 10 DIV 10X20X20

BEAM ON ELASTIC FOUNDATION BY DISPLACEMENT METHOD -

BEAM LENGTH = 20.00 FT
BEAM WIDTH = 10.00 FT
BEAM DEPTH = 1.6667 FT
BEAM MOD OF ELAS = 468000. K/SQ FT
MOD. OF SUBGRADE REAC. = 48. K/CU FT
THE MAX VALUE OF LINEAR SOIL DEFL = 1.50 IN
THE UNIT WEIGTH OF BEAM = 0.150 K/CU FT

		MOMENT	OF INERTIA(FT**4)	SEG LENGTH, FT
SEG	NO	1	3.858026	2.0000
SEG	NO	5	3.858026	2.0000
ŠĒĞ	NO	2	3.858026	2.0000
SEG	NO	4	3.858026	2.0000
ŠĚĞ	NO	Ś	3.858026	2.0000
ŠĔĞ	NĎ	6	3.858026	2.0000
ŠĚĞ	NO	7	3.858026	2.0000
ŠĒĞ	NO	á	3-858026	2.0000
SEĞ	NO	ğ	3.858026	2.0000
ŠĔĞ	NÖ	1Ó.	3.858026	2.0000

COL NODE POINT = 2 P = 310.00 KIPS COL MOMENT = 0.0 FT-K

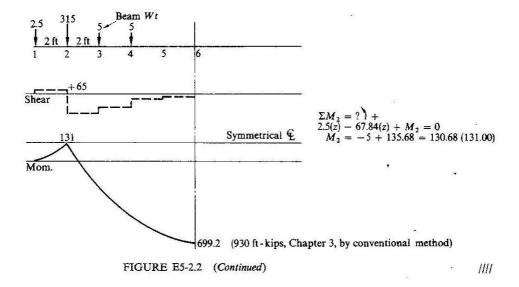
COL NODE POINT = 10 P = 310.00 KIPS COL MOMENT = 0.0 FT-K

12345678901231456789012	P-MATRIX 00.00 00.	вм ыт	X 000000000000000000000000000000000000	SOIL MATRIX 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.	SUM = PM(I) 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.
-------------------------	--	-------	--	--	--

FIGURE E5-2.1

SHEAR AT EACH SEGMENT,KIPS	BEND. MOMENT AT EACH ORDINATE FT-K (ORIG. FEMS ADDED)	E SOIL REACTION AT EA. ORD KIPS	SOIL PRESSURE
1 65.3410 2 -185.2658 3 -129.4212 4 -76.6552 5 -25.9488 6 25.9489 1 27.5730 9 127.5730 1 10 -67.0500	3 -240,2500	e precision 67.8410 64.3930 40.8446 57.7659 55.7065 54.9900 57.7260 57.7260 60.4726 60.4726 60.4726 60.83887	3-192 3-220 3-042 2-888 2-785 2-750 2-786 2-890 3-045 3-3297

, FIGURE E5-2.2



#### EXAMPLE 5-3 Repeat Example 5-2 using metric units and 10 divisions.

SOLUTION Convert dimensions, etc., to meters and kilonewtons, using Table 2-8. Partial conversions are as follows:

$$DX = 1.6667(0.3048) = 0.508 \text{ m}$$
  
 $BX = 10(0.3048) = 3.048 \text{ m}$ .  
 $k_s = 48(157.09) = 7,540.32 \text{ kN/cu m}$   
 $P = 310(4.4475) = 1,378.7 \text{ kN}$   
 $E = 468,000(4.7882) = 22,408,750 \text{ kN/sq m}$ 

#### Data cards are:

Card	Data					
1	TITLE JE Bowles···etc. (see Fig. E5-3	(.1)				
	UT1 UT2 UT3 UT4 UT5	UT6	FU1	FU <sub>2</sub>	FU3	FU4
2	M CM KN KN-M KN/SQ M	KN/CU	M 100.	.3	10.	0
	KL JJS LIST					
3	10 0 0 A, ASAT not listed (I	LIST = 0				
	XL BX DX XK ELAS	XMAX	UNITWT	L1	L2	
4	6,096 3.048 .508 7540.32 22408750	3.81	23.6	0	2	
5	2 1378.7 0. Column node and load	ing				
6	10 1378.7 0.					

Note use of meters and kilonewtons except XMAX, which is centimeters. This allows the program to compute either fps or metric units by use of card 2 and the correct data-card input units.

Partial output is shown in Figs. E5-3.1 and E5-3.2; the beam is shown in Fig. E5-1.1.

J E BOWLES EXAMPLE 5-3-BEAM OF EXAMPLE 5-1 W/10 DIV AND METRIC UNITS

	BEA	M C	N i	ELA	STI	C F	au	NO	AT	10	N	В	Y	D	ISF	L	CE	ME	١T	ME.	тно	D				
		8	BEAL BEAL BEAL BEAL HOD. THE	M W D M O M A UN	ENG IDT EPT OD F S X V	TH = H = OF UBG ALU WEI	= EL RA JE GT	3 · ASS	05 08 R L	0 0 E/I	M M 22 NE NE N	40 AR AM	87 = 9	3	6. IL 2	KA 754 DE	1/S 0. FL	Q I	4 4/(	U 1	•   C	М				ž.
SOSSOSSOSSOS SOSSOSSOSSOS SOSSOSSOS SOSSOS	222222222	1234567890	10MI	ENT	0F000000000000000000000000000000000000	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	32	98998		м	**	*4	1			00000000	G 600 600 600 600 600 600 600	96666666666666666666666666666666666666	NG.	ΓH <b>,</b> <i>i</i>	MI I					
COL	NODE	P	I N	Τ =	2			P	=	1.	37	8.	70	)	KN			CDI		1011	ENT	=		0.	0	KN-M
COL	NODE	P	JIN	Τ =	10	Ü		P	=	1	37	8.	70	)	KN			COI	L	MON	ENT	=		0.	0	KN-M
1234567890123456789012	137	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	0	8 M	, WI	122222222222222222222222222222222222222	TRO 000000000000000000000000000000000000	386776 2776 2776 2776 2776			so	IL		000000000000000000000000000000000000000	R0000000000000000000000000000000000000	IX		SU		000000000000010000000000000000000000000	I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I	8666666666	e e	약	w B	

FIGURE E5-3.1

FIGURE E5-3.1 (Continued)

THE LOAD MATRIX (KN OR KN-M) IS	THE JOINT DEFLECTIONS (M OR RADIANS) ARE	THE FORCE MATRIX (KN OR KN-M) IS
LOAD DIR. 1 0.0 LOAD DIR. 3 0.0 LOAD DIR. 3 0.0 LOAD DIR. 5 0.0 LOAD DIR. 5 0.0 LOAD DIR. 7 0.0 LOAD DIR. 7 0.0 LOAD DIR. 7 0.0 LOAD DIR. 10 0.0 LOAD DIR. 11 0.0 LOAD DIR. 12 0.0 LOAD DIR. 13 1378.7000 LOAD DIR. 13 1378.7000 LOAD DIR. 14 0.0 LOAD DIR. 15 0.0 LOAD DIR. 16 0.0 LOAD DIR. 17 0.0 LOAD DIR. 18 0.0 LOAD DIR. 18 0.0 LOAD DIR. 19 0.0 LOAD DIR. 22 1378.7000 LOAD DIR. 22 1378.7000 LOAD DIR. 22 1.0 LOAD DIR. 22 0.0 LOAD DIR. 22 1.0 LOAD DIR. 22 0.0 Checking: @ M <sub>b</sub> = 948.44/L.356 3	JOINT DIR. 1 -0.00178004 JOINT DIR. 2 -0.00185246 JOINT DIR. 3 -0.00179212 JOINT DIR. 4 -0.00138393 JOINT DIR. 5 -0.00074658 JOINT DIR. 6 -0.00000125 JOINT DIR. 7 0.00074618 JOINT DIR. 8 0.00138182 JOINT DIR. 8 0.00138182 JOINT DIR. 9 0.00179049 JOINT DIR. 10 0.00185110 JOINT DIR. 11 0.00177376 JOINT DIR. 12 0.02157150 JOINT DIR. 13 0.02047165 JOINT DIR. 14 0.00173736 JOINT DIR. 15 0.01835753 JOINT DIR. 16 0.01769704 JOINT DIR. 17 0.01746780 JOINT DIR. 18 0.01769704 JOINT DIR. 19 0.01835753 JOINT DIR. 19 0.01835753 JOINT DIR. 19 0.01835753 JOINT DIR. 20 0.01746780 JOINT DIR. 20 0.01746780 JOINT DIR. 21 0.02046677 JOINT DIR. 21 0.02046677 JOINT DIR. 21 0.02136597 JOINT DIR. 21 0.02156578	MOMENT 1 175.6250 MOMENT 3 175.6250 MOMENT 4 323.3125. MOMENT 5 325.2500 MOMENT 6 674.0225 MOMENT 7 675.1875 MOMENT 8 880.1875 MOMENT 9 8879.9375 MOMENT 10 948.4375 MOMENT 10 948.4375 MOMENT 12 881.3125 MOMENT 12 881.3125 MOMENT 12 881.3125 MOMENT 14 675.5000 MOMENT 15 380.6250 MOMENT 15 380.6250 MOMENT 17 3750 MOMENT 17 3750 MOMENT 18 177.3750 MOMENT 18 177.3750 MOMENT 19 177.3750 MOMENT 1
	MENT AT EACH ORDINATE SOIL IIG. FEMS ADDED) E	REACTION AT SOIL PRESSURI A. ORD., KN KN/SQ M
1 291.0864 1 2 -823.0742 2 3 -574.3889 3 4 -339.4692 4 5 -113.7753 5 108.6761 6 7 334.3477 7 8 569.2256 8 9 817.8538 9 10 -296.3755 10	0.2500 175.6250 -325.2500 -675.1875 -879.9375 -948.4375 -880.6255 -325.1250 177.3750 -0.2500 SUM OF SUIL REACTIONS =	302-2244 162-656 286-8152 154-363 270-9612 145-830 257-1956 138-422 247-9699 133-456 244-7273 131-711 247-9474 133-444 257-1538 138-399 270-9041 145-799 286-7466 154-326 302-1443 2974-7891 2980-151
FIGUR	RE E5-3.2	1111

FIGURE E5-3.2

1111

## 5-10 LIMITATIONS OF MATRIX SOLUTION FOR BEAM ON ELASTIC FOUNDATION

This partial Winkler foundation solution is as valid as any of the proposals such as Biot (1937) or Ohde [see Vesić and Johnson (1963)]. The solution compares well with the classical (Hetenyi) solution and the finite-difference solution. A solution of a given beam shows:

 ft-kips

 Node
 Matrix
 Finite-difference
 Hetenyi

 6
 -698.71
 -706.90
 856.1

The comparison is not strictly valid, however, since the matrix solution includes the beam weight and the other two do not. As stated earlier, this would tend to reduce the moments 2 to 3 percent.

There has been little reported actual testing of continuous beams to establish the validity of these solutions. The most notable is the series of tests reported by Vesić and Johnson (1963). The author has analyzed these, as shown in Tables 5-1 and 5-2. From these data it appears that the finite-element solution proposed is one of the better solutions.

These tabular data indicate that the matrix solution by the author is not sensitive to  $k_s$ . The author has solved a large number of problems and has found this statement to be consistently correct; and, as indicated earlier, also illustrates that the Vesic equation

$$k_s' = 0.65 \sqrt[12]{\frac{E_s B^4}{E_b I_b}} \frac{E_s}{1 - \mu^2}$$
 (2-25)

does not require correction for L/B ratios greater than 1, as originally proposed by Vesić.

#### 5-11 CORRECTING FOR NONLINEAR SOIL BEHAVIOR

The matrix solution is easy to correct for holes, changes in soil properties, excessive deflection, or footing separation as follows:

- 1 Holes or change in  $k_s$ : read in zero or modified  $K_i$  value into S matrix.
- 2 Excessive deflection: apply a force in the P matrix of  $K \times \delta$ , where  $\delta$  is the predetermined deflection to enter the nonlinear range of soil deformation.
- 3 Footing separation: set K = 0 in the S matrix and do the problem over.

Table 5-1 COMPARISON OF MATRIX ANALYSIS OF BEAM ON ELASTIC FOUNDATION WITH VALUES REPORTED BY VESIC AND JOHNSON (1963) 0.64cl 0.66e Δ, in 1.0 const 0.18cl  $\begin{array}{c} 0.08cl \\ 0.19e \end{array}$ 0.40cl 0.43e 99'0 0.72cl 0.70cl 1.5e 1.26*cl* 1.54*e* Vary ks +161.8-0.82 -34.8 -117.4Moomp +32.9 -28.0+67.8-44.5+27.1 +52.7+31.8 -29.4 70.0 175.0 54.0 K. 0.45*cl* 0.48*e* 0.24cl  $0.13cl \\ 0.25e$ i 0.57cl 0.60e 0.69 const 0.47 0.35cl 0.21cl 0.47ct 0.32e 4 Bowles‡ Мсомр +160.9 -117.0+6.15 +32.9 +71.0+26.2 -33.2 +38.4 -48.1+35.9 Test no. 7 ~ 00 6 4 c 0.60c/† 0.68e 0.28cl  $0.18cl \\ 0.31e$ ä 0.36cl 0.08 const 0.48cl 0.59  $\begin{array}{c} 1.0cl \\ 0.87e \end{array}$ 0.9cl ď +160.2-117.9Ohde's +31.7 +71.0-49.4+32.1 -30.4 -42.0107 + .11.1 - 29.4 +148.5-132.0Сотр Vesić\* +17.0 -40.1+67.5 -56.2+12.4 +41.65.2 -2 11.2 +172.0-113.2+36.6 +61.4-48.4 +40.0 +37.0+5.0 143.0 Meas ks, kcf 98.2 123.3 150.0 Load, kips 6 ft 3.25 5.19 5.19 2 0 ř, ř 7,601 6.9 199 Beam 8 in Std Ship Channel 21.4 lb WF 8 × 31

\* Vesić deflections taken from graphs.

<sup>†</sup> cl refers to centerline deflections; e is end deflection. ‡ Bowles moment computations use same k<sub>s</sub> as Vesić.

When reworking the Vesić test data the author found that considering excessive deflections or footing separations does not improve the computations; in fact the computed values deviated more when considering nonlinear soil properties than when ignoring them. This phenomenon is contrary to what most soil engineers would expect; the author offers no explanation since he has none.

This solution does not consider footing-to-soil friction. A finite-element solution by Cheung and Nag (1968) attempted to account for base friction with results which may be questionable. There is no doubt that friction is a factor and could account for part of the discrepancy between some of the measured values of Vesić and computed ones. A major factor to overcome in applying the friction effect is to determine the direction. Except for the case of a reasonably flexible beam loaded with a single load near the center, the direction is uncertain because the direction depends on the strain difference in the beam and soil at their interface. The situation becomes even more formidable if the beam curvature reverses. A solution which merely satisfies the problem statics may not be correct.

Comparing the Vesić work (Table 5-2), which is all that is available, and assuming that the measured values are correct, it appears that the computed moments are unsafe by a factor of about 20 percent maximum. The author, having also loaded members on soil beds, is aware that there is considerable difficulty in loading by using a hydraulic jack against a beam, as opposed to a dead-load type of loading device to keep the load constant as long as 15 min, the time reported by Vesić as that required to take the strain-gage readings. Considering these facts, model problems, uncertainty

Table 5-2 PERCENT ERROR OF MOMENTS COMPUTED BY VARIOUS METHODS AND VARYING THE MODULUS-OF-SUBGRADE REACTION COMPARED TO THE REPORTED VALUES BY VESIC AND JOHNSON (1963)\*

Test no.	Vesić	Ohde	Bowles	$k_s = 250$	$k_s = 175$	$k_{\rm s} = 200$
1	-13.66	-6.86	-6.43	-7.49		· 180 (1271)
2	+16.61	+4.15	+3.35	+1.55		
3	-66.12	-13.39	-10.11	-9.84	16	
	+27.00	-8.31	-17.03	-17.51		
7	+9.93	+15,64	+15.64	+3.75	+10.42	
8	+16.12	+ <del>2</del> .07	-0.62	-16.95	-8.06	
8 9	-57.50	-19.00	-34.50	-29.00	-32.25	
	+33.67	+1.33	+10.67	+ 5.67	+7.33	
4	$\pm 12.43$	+13.51	+3.86	23 CH07.17.05	1 7.00	$\pm 1.08$
6	-62.00	-98.00	+23.00			+86.40
	+8.33	+7.61	-8.01			-15.94
6	-25.12	-27.67	-16.63			-15.12
	+38.73	+44.12	+27.35			+21.57

<sup>%</sup> error =  $\frac{\text{comp. value} \times 100}{\text{measured value}} - 100$ 

<sup>\*</sup> Part of values from Table 5-1.

of friction, etc., it appears that the Winkler model is adequate for computational purposes.

#### 5-12 DESIGNING THE FOOTING AS A BEAM ON AN ELASTIC FOUNDATION

The design of a footing as a beam on an elastic foundation requires the analysis to proceed initially as for the conventional (rigid) design of Chap. 3. This establishes depth for shear and the width to satisfy, initially at least, the allowable bearing capacity.

With the overall depth D including shear depth plus 3 in (7.5 cm) of steel cover as

$$D = d + 3$$
 in or  $D = d + 7.5$  cm

and the column loads converted to  $P_{ult}$  the solution is made. Note that one must convert loads to ultimate for ultimate-strength design. One should not convert  $k_s$ by a load-ratio factor as this would make the soil too stiff. The resulting computed deflections will be too large by the ultimate load-ratio factor, as expected.

The bending moments for the beam on an elastic foundation are always smaller than the rigid solution, as illustrated in Fig. 5-7; thus, some economy in steel requirements for bending results. This solution probably yields a more realistic description of soil pressure and is therefore to be recommended.

It is further recommended that the design moments be increased at least 10 percent to account for the fact the computed moments tend more often to be under the measured values than over. This increase will require slightly more steel but still considerably less than required in the conventional design.

Transverse steel should be computed using either the method of Chap. 3, of considering a zone centered on and containing the column of width

$$a + 3d$$

or the method of treating the footing as a mat (Chap. 7). If computed moments are too small, it may be necessary to decrease the appropriate footing dimensions and reanalyze.

#### 5-13 THE COMPUTER SOLUTION

The steps in the solution of a beam on an elastic foundation by the finite-element method are as follows:

1 Make a sketch of the footing system and code the structure for P-X and F-e as in Fig. 5-1. The included computer program is set up for the coding shown in the figure, including the directions shown as positive.

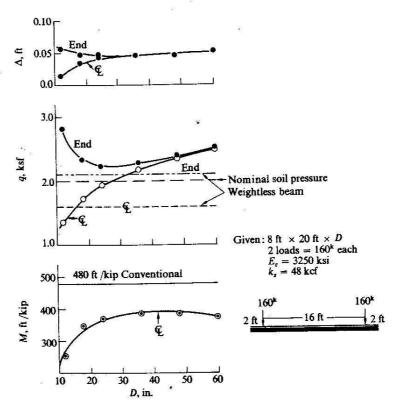


FIGURE 5-7 Influence of beam depth on computed values. Soil pressure increases partly because footing weight is included in analysis and varies from 24 kips at D=12 in to 120 kips at D=60 in. Deflections and moments include beam weight.

- 2 Generate the A matrix. Note that it is not necessary to generate the  $A^T$  matrix since the  $SA^T$  matrix can be formed directly from the A matrix by appropriate subscripting. This conserves computer core.
- 3 Generate the S matrix, preferably in two columns to conserve computer core.
- 4 Form the  $SA^T$  matrix. This matrix must be retained (stored), as it is needed both immediately to form

$$ASA^T = A \times SA^T$$

and after inverting the  $ASA^T$  to compute the F matrix as

$$F = SA^T \times X$$

$$P \times P$$
 or  $2N + 2$ 

where N is number of beam segments.

6 Compute the nodal displacement X as

$$X = \left\lceil ASA^T \right\rceil^{-1} P$$

Note that  $X_i$  may be a rotation (radians) or translation (units of length) determined by inspection of the P-X diagram.

- 7 Check the translation elements of the X matrix for zero, negative, or values which are in nonlinear deflection range.
  - a For negative or zero values of translation, zero out the appropriate K values in the S matrix.
  - b For X values larger than the predetermined value  $X_{\max}$ , which represents soil deformation in the linear range, multiply the appropriate K value in the S matrix to obtain a force

$$G_i = S_i \times X_{\text{max}}$$

Now zero the K value out of the S matrix (requiring storage of all the soil K values under an alternate identity).

8 Apply the  $G_i$  force at the *i*th node as a negative P force in the P matrix so that the resulting P value at that node is

$$P_i + G_i = PM_i$$

- 9 Recycle with the modified S matrix and reform  $SA^T$ ,  $ASA^T$ , and X.
- 10 Repeat steps 8 and 9 until:
  - a Either the same or a smaller number of nodes in the current solution have zero, negative, or maximum deflections than in the immediate preceding solution; i.e., either convergence or oscillation has been obtained.
  - b Or a predetermined number of cycles has been made.
  - c It should be noted that if all the K values are made zero, an unstable situation will exist and the program will "blow up" unless this provision is taken into account.
- 11 Note that the use of the second data card (after TITLE) with UT1 through UT6 and FU1 through FU4 (and used with the same FORMAT in all the included computer programs, which optionally compute in fps or metric

units) allows the printing of I/O consistent with the units used in the program. For convenience to the user the units are defined below:

 JT1	UT2	UT3	UT4 FT_KTPS	UTS KIPS/SO FT	UT6 KIPS/CU FT		1.	FU3 144.	FU4 0
M.	CM	KN	KN-M	KN/SQ M	KN/CU M	100.	0.3	10.	0

Note that KN is used for kilonewtons and that FU4 is left for the user to fill in with any desired constant of conversion.

### The Computer Program

Operation
Bookkeeping; note storing the $ASA^T$ over the A matrix and double precision of UT5
and IIT6 so that eight spaces in A-format code can be used
READ TITLE, UNIT card (two cards)
READ $KL =$ number of beam divisions; JJS = number of nodes requiring correction with separate data cards in the S matrix; LIST = output control; if LIST > 1, prints A, $SA^{T}$ , and $ASA^{T}$
Computes control counters
READ (7F10.4, 2I5)  XL,BX,DC = beam length, width, and depth; XK = soil modulus; EC = modulus of elasticity; XMAX = maximum linear soil deflection (inches or centimeters); UNITWT = unit weight of beam (use 0. for weightless beams); L1 = number of columns between nodes; L2 = number of columns on nodes. Note only XMAX is in units other than feet or meter units; use kips or kilonewtons for all force units
Computes moment of inertia (ft <sup>4</sup> or m <sup>4</sup> )
Converts XMAX to feet or meters using FU1  Converts XMAX to feet or meters using FU1
Builds and writes A matrix. For nonlinear soil effect loops back to here since ASA <sup>T</sup> is stored over the A matrix
Builds S matrix in two columns. Note JJS > 0 is used on line 88
Builds $P$ matrix. Note if $L1 > 0$ , program computes incu-end moments. Note if $L1 > 0$ ; READ line 130 if $L2 > 0$ . Unit weight of beam is concentrated at nodes and added to $P$ matrix, as are nonlinear soil effects (line 144) on recycles
$D_{\rm c}$ 11.1 and residue of ICT $\sim 0.004^{\circ}$
Builds and writes $ASA^{T}$ , but if written, it is factored by $10^{3}$
Inverts the ASA <sup>T</sup> matrix
Computes X matrix (deflections, feet or meters)
Computes $X$ matrix (deflections, feet of inters) Computes $F$ matrix and adjusts if nonlinear soil values are used [G(I-KD)] in earlier
cycles
Tests for nonlinear soil effects
JE BOWLES MATRIX ANALYSIS OF BEAM ON AN ELASTIC FOUNDATION  KL = NUMBER OF BEAM ELEMENTS  JJS = NO OF CORRECTIONS IS S-MATRIX S(I,1) OR S(I,2)  L1 = NO OF CORRECTIONS IS S-MATRIX S(I,1) OR S(I,2)  L2 = NO OF COLS BETWEEN NODES: M1 = LT NODE NO; N1 = RT NODE NO  L2 = NO OF COLS AT NODE POINTS  L2 = NO OF COLS AT NODE NO ENDERNOOR OF NOTE POINTS  L2 = NO OF COLS AT NODE NO ENDERNOOR OF NOTE POINTS  L2 = NO OF COLS AT NODE NO ENDERNOOR OF NOTE POINTS  L2 = NO OF COLS AT NODE NO ENDERNOOR OF NOTE POINTS  L2 = NO OF COLS AT NODE NO ENDERNOOR OF NOTE POINTS  L2 = NO OF COLS AT NODE NO ENDERNOOR OF NOTE POINTS  L2 = NO OF COLS AT NODE NO ENDERNOOR OF NOTE POINTS  L2 = NO OF COLS AT NODE NOTE POINTS  L2

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0238
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00 54 I = 1.KL
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#### 5-14 RING FOUNDATIONS

Little work appears to have been done on ring foundations, yet there are many structures, e.g., antennas or water towers in which a ring foundation provides a satisfactory solution. The theoretical work of Volterra (1952), Volterra and Chung (1955), and Egorov (1965) appear to be the major published efforts, at least in English.

The matrix method as used for beams can also be used for ring foundations in the following manner (refer to Fig. 5-8). The structure is first coded as if the ring were a linear beam for P-X and F-e. Since the mean radius does not define the center of area, it is proposed that the computations be based on a radius which does define the center of area as follows. Let

$$A_{\text{total}} = (D_o^2 - D_i^2) \frac{\pi}{4}$$

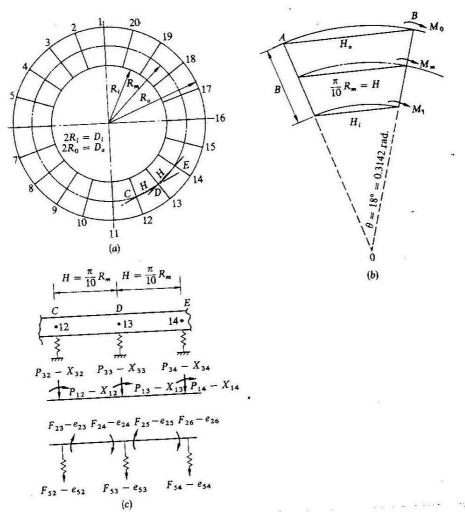
and the outside diameter to split the total area in half is  $2R_m$ . Therefore, equating half areas gives

$$[(2R_m)^2 - D_i^2] \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{1}{2}(D_o^2 - D_i^2) \frac{\pi}{4}$$

and, solving for  $R_m$ ,

$$R_m = \sqrt{(D_o^2 - D_i^2)_{\frac{1}{8}}^2}$$

It is this radius on which the column loads should be applied to reduce twisting to a minimum since it is this radius which defines the resultant soil-pressure line when a uniform soil-pressure distribution is assumed across the footing width.



Matrix solution of ring foundation. Note that  $R_m$  is not the average radius using  $R_i$  and  $R_o$ . (a) Ring foundation with 20 segments. (b) Tangential moments on one side of the segment. Radial moments perpendicular to the tangential moments are not shown. (c) Coding for matrix solution, considering segments CDE of part (a).

The resulting bending moments are for the total footing width, just as for the conventional beam on an elastic foundation. Referring to Figs. 5-8 and 5-3, it should also be evident that if we assume a constant rotation along any radial line such as OA and OB, with the nodal rotation across the ring width assumed constant and the moment being a function of

$$F_1 = \frac{4EI\theta_1}{L} + \frac{2EI\theta_2}{L}$$

the moment must be larger at the interior edge and smaller at the exterior edge of the ring at approximately the ratio of the inner, outer, and center of area chord distances. Thus,

$$M_i = \frac{M_m}{B} \frac{H_o}{H_i}$$
 inner edge 
$$M_m = \frac{M}{B}$$
 center-of-area radius 
$$M_o = \frac{M_m H}{B H_o}$$
 outer edge

It is proposed that radial moments be computed analogous to the method for conventional solutions of using a radial zone of width a + 3d centered on the column at the center of area. Alternatively, one may compute the radial moment as

$$M_r = M_m \sin \frac{\phi}{2}$$

where  $\phi$  is the central angle of any segment, as shown in Fig. 5-8.

A comparison of Volterra's problem [Volterra (1952)] is shown in Fig. 5-9. Since the author's method places the column loads on the center of area, no comparison can be made of tangential twisting (or torsional) moments. Volterra did not compute radial moments because his solutions were for beams of very narrow width B.

To compute shear at the nodes use the central-finite-difference expressions for y''' given in Table 4-1.

EXAMPLE 5-4 Compute the tangential bending moments and shears for the 20 node points of Fig. 5-8 for four equally spaced loads of 150 kips each [Volterra (1952)]. Other data:  $E_c = 468,000$  ksf;  $k_s = 86.4$  kcf; ID = 47.5 ft; OD = 52.5 ft; DC =

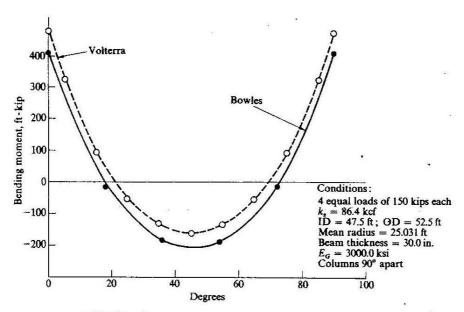


FIGURE 5-9
Comparison of the matrix solution and that of Volterra (1952). Twenty divisions are used in the matrix solution. The difference is not over 15 percent and may be less if more divisions are used in the matrix solution.

2.5 ft; columns spaced at 90°. The load matrix is P(1) = P(6) = P(11) = P(16) = 150 kips.

The data cards for the computer program are as follows:

Data							
TITI	E (see c	utput	of Fig	. E5-4	4.1)		
UNI							
86.4						Fo	oting data
150.	0.	0.	0.	0.	150.	0.	
0.	0.	0.	150.	0.	0.	0.	
0.	150.	0.	0.	0.	0.	0.	(7F10.5)
	TITI UNI 86.4	UNITS (UT1 86.4 468000. 150. 0. 0. 0.	TITLE (see output UNITS (UT1-UT6 86.4 468000. 47.5 150. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0.	TITLE (see output of Fig UNITS (UT1-UT6 and F 86.4 468000. 47.5 52.5 150. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 150.	TITLE (see output of Fig. E5-4 UNITS (UT1-UT6 and FU1-I 86.4 468000. 47.5 52.5 2.5 150. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 0. 150. 0.	TITLE (see output of Fig. E5-4.1) UNITS (UT1-UT6 and FU1-FU4) 86.4 468000. 47.5 52.5 2.5 (5F10.4) 150. 0. 0. 0. 0. 150. 0. 0. 150. 0. 0.	TITLE (see output of Fig. E5-4.1) UNITS (UT1-UT6 and FU1-FU4) 86.4 468000. 47.5 52.5 2.5 (5F10.4) Fo 150. 0. 0. 0. 0. 150. 0. 0. 0. 150. 0. 0. 0.

This represents the total input data.

SOLUTION The solution is presented in Fig. E5-4.1 as computer output. Note that the solution has also been plotted in Fig. 5-9 to make a comparison with the published solution. Output is for total footing width, not per ft of width.

## 5-15 COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR RING FOUNDATIONS

This computer program will solve any ring foundation with 20 divisions (segments) in either fps or metric units using UT1 through UT6 as the second data card. Read all dimensions in feet or meters, forces in kips or kilonewtons. Any number of column loads may be used, but if columns are not on nodes, prorate the load using simple beam theory, as with (normally) short segments the fixed-end moments will not be significant in the computations. The user must prorate the column loads and can include the beam weight as part of the data read into the P matrix.

Line	Operation
1-6	Bookkeeping, note storage of the $ASA^T$ (Z) over the A matrix
7	READ TITLE, UNITS (use two cards)
11	DEAD
672.00	SKS = soil modulus; EC = modulus of elasticity; ID,OD,DC = inside and outside
	diameters and footing depth (feet or meters)
14	Computes moment of inertia of cross section
15	Computes mean radius of ring (center of area)
16-24	Computation constants
25-44	Builds A matrix
45-57	Builds S matrix in two columns
59-66	Builds SA <sup>T</sup> matrix
67-74	Builds $ASA^T$ and stores over A matrix
75	READ P, matrix (always three cards at 7F10.5)
85-102	Inverts ASA <sup>T</sup> matrix
103-111	Computes X matrix and F matrix
119-124	Computes segment shears using finite-difference equations
141	Converts deflections to inches or centimeters using FU1

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0059
0060
0061
0062
0063
0064
0065
0067
0068
0069
0070
0071
0072
0073
0080
0081
0082
0083
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#### **PROBLEMS**

- 5-1 Repeat the assigned part of Prob. 3-5 as a beam on an elastic foundation. Do the problem for the following conditions (and 10 divisions):
- (a) Three values of  $k_s$  including  $k_s = 36q_a$ .
- (b) Three values of D (total concrete depth) including the value used in Chap. 3.
- (c) Three values of  $f_c'$  (varies  $E_c$ ) including the assigned values of Chap. 3. Comment on the effects of these variables on a solution.
- 5-2 Repeat the assigned problem of Chap. 3 if each column has an applied ultimate moment of

$$M_{\rm u} = 0.2 P_{\rm uit}$$

- 5-3 Repeat the assigned problem of Chap. 3 using a number of divisions other than 10 as assigned by the instructor.
- 5-4 Solve a ring foundation using the included computer program if

$$k_s = 100 \text{ kcf}$$
  $B = 6 \text{ ft}$   $f'_c = 3,000 \text{ psi}$   
 $DC = 30 \text{ in}$   $ID = 24 \text{ ft}$ 

for:

- (a) Four equally spaced working dead loads of 200 kips.
- (b) Six equally spaced working dead loads of 200 kips.
- (c) Three loads at 30° (nonsymmetrical) of 300 kips.

Note: with DL, the load factor = 1.4.

- 5-5 What are the loads of parts (a) and (b) of Prob. 5-4 to obtain a soil pressure of not over 2 ksf?
- 5-6 What value of B with the load of the assigned part (a), (b), or (c) of Prob. 5-4 will reduce the soil pressure to not over 2 ksf?
- 5-7 What is a reasonable explanation for the fact that using five divisions in Example 5-1 provides such erroneous results?
- 5-8 Modify the ring foundation to solve a ring with any number of divisions. If your computer will invert a matrix of  $80 \times 80$ , recompute Example 5-2 using 40 divisions and compare the results with Fig. 5-9.

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#### FINITE-DIFFERENCE AND HETENYI SOLUTION OF BEAM ON ELASTIC FOUNDATION

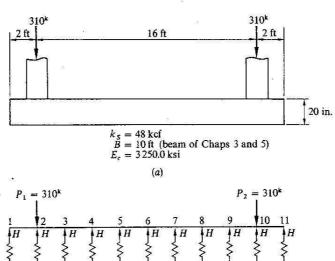
#### 6-1 FINITE-DIFFERENCE SOLUTION

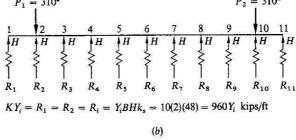
The finite-difference solution of a simply supported beam was presented in Sec. 4-2. A method presented by Malter (1960) extended the idea of using this technique to obtain bending moments in a beam on a Winkler foundation, i.e., replacing the soil mass with a series of soil springs. Teng (1962) included the method, and Bowles (1968) presented the method along with a modest computer program for a solution.

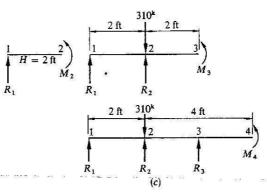
To have a reasonably valid solution one must use more than the six beam segments illustrated in Sec. 4-2. Generally 10 to 20 segments should be employed to define the elastic curve of the beam adequately. Reverse curvature obviously requires a larger number of beam segments than single curvature.

The solution presented here has one major advantage over the matrix solution of Chap. 5, namely, the size of the matrix to be inverted is small, always equal to N+1, where N is the number of beam segments used. The disadvantages were cited in Chap. 5, the major one being the difficulty of building the P matrix.

In Fig. 6-1 a typical beam with two loads is shown (this is the one for which the solution is illustrated later in Example 6-1). Figure 6-1b shows the beam divided into 10 segments with soil reactions or springs at each node point. Note that the end K







#### FIGURE 6-1

Beam on an elastic foundation by the finite-difference method: (a) concrete combined footing of Chap. 3 with footing total thickness and loads (ultimate) shown; (b) beam using 10 segments supported by 11 "springs" as a Winkler foundation; (c) free-body diagram to sum moments at nodes 2, 3, and 4.

values are the same as the interior values used in Chap. 5. From Fig. 4-1 and the example of Sec. 4-2, the bending moment at any station is

$$EI\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -M$$

or in finite-difference notation (y" of Table 4-1)

$$\frac{EI}{h^2}(y_{i-1} - 2y_i + y_{i+1}) = -M_i (6-1)$$

Now back to the beam and data of Fig. 6-1b:

$$E = 3,250(144) = 468,000 \text{ ksf}$$

$$I = \frac{10(\frac{20}{12})^3}{12} = 3.858 \text{ ft}^4$$

$$h = \frac{20}{10} = 2.0 \text{ ft}$$

$$\frac{EI}{h^2} = \frac{3,250(144)(3.858)}{2^2} = 451,388.0$$

$$R_i = k_s H B y_i = 960.0 y_i$$

At point 2 (we could use point 1 with a forward-difference expression, but, as we will see, we need only 11 independent equations<sup>1</sup>)

$$\sum M_{\text{left}} = 0$$

$$M_2 - 2R_i = 0$$

but

$$M_2 = \frac{EI}{h^2} (y_1 - 2y_2 + y_3)$$

<sup>1</sup> Intermixing central- and forward- (or backward-) difference expressions is mathematically valid but should be done only as a last resort.

Substituting [and recalling EIy'' = -M from Eq. (6-1)], we have

$$\frac{EI}{h^2}(y_1 - 2y_2 + y_3) + 2(R_1) = 0$$

$$451,388y_1 - 902,776y_2 + 451,388y_3 + 2(960y_1) = 0$$

Introducing the remaining y's with zero coefficients to build a legitimate matrix, we obtain

$$453,308y_1 - 902,776y_2 + 451,388y_3 + 0y_4 + \dots + 0y_{11} = 0 \tag{1}$$

At point 3,  $\sum M_{\text{left}} = 0$  and (note that the column load is in this area of interest)

$$\frac{EI}{h^2}(y_2 - 2y_3 + y_4) + 4R_1 + 2R_2 - 2(P_1) = 0$$

Substituting gives

$$451,388y_2 - 902,776y_3 + 451,388y_4 + 3,840y_1 + 1,920y_2 = 620$$

and rearranging and including the remaining y's, we have

$$3,840y_1 + 453,308y_2 - 902,776y_3 + 451,388y_4 + 0y_5 + \dots + 0y_{11} = 620$$
(2)

In a similar manner we can write equations at each node point through node 10 using central-difference expressions for moment. This yields nine equations.

The tenth equation will be obtained to satisfy the total problem statics of

$$\sum F_{\sigma} = 0$$

or

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} R_i - \sum_{i=1}^{n} P_i = 0$$

or in this case (with 960 factored for writing ease),

$$-960(y_1 + y_2 + y_3 + y_4 + y_5 + \dots + y_{11}) = 620$$
 (10)

To obtain the eleventh equation, let us sum moments about either end. The computer program sums about the left end; therefore,

$$960h(0y_1 + 1y_2 + 2y_3 + 3y_4 + 4y_4 + \dots + 10y_{11}) = 2(310) + 18(310)$$

or

$$0 + 1,920y_2 + 3,840y_3 + \cdots 192,00y_{11} = 6,200 \tag{11}$$

We have now formed the necessary number of equations in the general matrix form of

$$A_{11\times 11}Y_{11\times 1} = P_{11\times 1}$$

The A matrix is square, and we can solve for Y by inverting to obtain

$$Y = A^{-1}P$$

EXAMPLE 6-1 Obtain the solution of the example partially formulated and illustrated in Fig. 6-1. Use the included computer program. Note that the computer matrix is slightly different due to a roundoff and smaller by a factor of 10 for output convenience.

SOLUTION The data cards to solve this problem are as follows:

Card	Data							
1	TITL	Æ.		0 0 0000				
2	FT	IN KIP	S F	T-KIPS	KIF	S/SO	FT	KIPS/CU FT
	This	is the stan	dard	UNIT c	ard co	ontair	ing t	he entries UT1 through UT
3	48.	468000.	10.	1.6667	2.0	2.0	16.	
4	310.	310.	0.	0.				
							Licenseal:	The second secon

The output is shown on Fig. E6-1.1. Note the checking of  $M_3$  and one-half of shear and moment diagrams. Only one-half of each diagram is shown because of

DIFFERENCE
FINITE
ВУ
3
CHAP
9
6-1FTG
EXAMPLE
BOWLES

48.00 K/CU FT FIG WIDTH = 10.00 FT FTG DEPTH = 1.67 FT 468C00 K/SQ FT H = 2.00 FT DIST COL = 2.00 FT C.0.00 FT FTG LENGTH = 20.00 FT	7.7 7.7 7.7
SFTG F	0.0
FT DIST FT**4	11 U
10.00 FT 3.8582	MOMENT M1 =
FTG WIDTH = 2.00	PI =310.00 KIPS P2 =310.00 KIPS
K/SQ FI	P1 =31
SOIL MODULUS = 48.00 K/0 MOD OF ELAS = 468000, DIST 2ND COL = 16.00 FT	COL LDADS & MOMENTS:

												;	ξ. ~	56.5	6	)   	
		44337116 443371684 52564	-10									2 ft				= 244.8	
		451 451 1920		0.066	63.70			0.0	3.18	63.7	310 <u>-</u>	Es a	-~	ر 60.2	+ 7/310	6 - 254.8 =	
		1.70	×	0.063	- 70.			127.40	3.01	60.2		2 ft		63.7k	(0) H	+ = 4 99.	
		451 451 -9050 -9056 -1728		0.059 0.063	129.58 186.07 -63.70			244.76 -127.40	2.82	56.5		M		9	$\Sigma M_3 = 0$	M <sub>3</sub> = 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1 + 1	3
		404 4004 1020 1030 1030 1030 1030 1030 1030 1030		0.055	76.31 129		s	503.91	2.66	53.3		4	10		į		
	(0)	404 1004 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000 1000		0.053	25.19 7	-186.07 KIPS	-63.70 KIPS	656.52	2.56	51.1	127	0	542	<u> </u>			
E	THE CDEFFICIENTS OF THE 11 SIMULTANEOUS EQ ARE (X 10)	4 905 4 905 4 905 4 902 8 902 1 905 1 905	FOLLOWS	c.652				706.90	2.52	50.4		∞,		105	1	1	
2000	NEOUS EQ	46-4 600 1000 1200 1200 1200 1200 1200 1200	THE OUTPUT IS AS FOLLOWS	0.053	-76.31 -25.19	TO RIGHT =	TD RIGHT =	656.56	2.56	51.1		+25 7		Ĺ	59		
2.7	SIMULTA	4904 4904 1908 1909 1909 1909 1909 1909 1909	THE OUTPU	9 0.055		KIPS	186.07 KIPS	5 503.90	2.66	53.3	ωı	+	-25	- kips	IJ L	04	. ا
2 - 210 - 00 - 11 - 3	OF THE 1	444 4001 4001 4001 11996 11966		3 0.059	63.70 -186.07 -129.58	63.70 KIPS		3 244.75	1 2.82	2 56.5	3000	ς.	92-	550 3	na e	<b>4</b> 3	18
	CLENTS	0051 0051 101 101 101 101 101 101 101 10		0.066 0.063	63.70 -	LEFT =	LEFT =	-127.43	3.01	2.09		4.	-130			83	<b>3</b> 1
202	E COEFF!	104		0.066	IPS	SHEAR AT FIRST COL, LEFT =	SHEAR AT SECOND COL, LEFT =	0.0	3.18	63.7		3	-186				
	H	2004 1		POINT NOS	SEG SHEAR, KIPS	AT FIR	AT SEC	F1-K	SQ FT	SOIL R KIPS	1 637	93.7	<u> </u>	I			
		4 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2		POIN	SEG	SHEAR	SHEAR	MOM, FT-K	0 K/SQ F1	SOIL	e <del>-</del>	\					

FIGURE E6-1.1 I/O for finite-difference solution of beam on elastic foundation. Partial shear and moment diagram due to symmetry. Note check of  $M_3$ ; sum of vertical forces on footing equals zero.

#### 6-2 GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS OF THE FINITE-DIFFERENCE SOLUTION OF THE ELASTIC SUPPORTED BEAM

The computer program will solve a beam with two concentrated loads with moments. The spring constants are computed using the simplest soil condition, that of constant  $k_s$ . The necessary method of incorporating the soil spring into the A matrix makes it difficult to modify the solution for holes or changes in K, or to account for negative or zero deflections through more than one cycle. In the matrix solution, however, these adjustments are rather simple.

It is very difficult to achieve general loading conditions on the footing since the P matrix contains a position factor  $(nH \times P_i)$  unless it is a moment; thus, the node at which a load is located must be identified early. It is not necessary to prorate intermediate column loads to adjacent nodes because of this fact. Load position and number of loads were no problem in the finite-element solution of Chap. 5.

The outstanding advantage of the finite-difference method, however, is the small size of the matrix to be inverted compared to that of the matrix solution. For special solutions, say, two-column loads or three-column loads with or without column moments (the included program uses two-column loads with moments) and a small computer, the finite-difference program provides a satisfactory means of obtaining a solution.

If a larger computer is available, the matrix solution is greatly to be preferred because of its superior versatility.

#### COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR FINITE-DIFFERENCE SOLUTION OF ELASTIC BEAM

The computer-program listing shown will compute the A matrix for a beam loaded with two concentrated column loads and including moments. The two columns may be anywhere along the beam.

This program checks for negative deflections and recycles.

Metric or fps units may be used by using the appropriate UNIT card.

```
Lines
                            Operation
                            Bookkeeping
READ TITLE, UNITS (two cards)
READ (7F10.4)
          1-4
               5
                7
                             SK = soil modulus; EC = modulus of elasticity; B = footing width; DC = thick-
                             ness; H = length of segment of footing; X = distance from left end to first column;
                             X1 = distance between columns. Use units of feet, meters, kips, and kilonewtons (no
                            inch or centimeter units)
             13
                             READ (7F10.4)
                             Column loads and moments P1, P2, MN1, MN2. Use units of kips, kilonewtons
                             ft-kips, and kN-m
     22-53
                             Computes deflection matrix Z(I,J) and stores as ZZ(I,J) for the test for negative
                             deflections
                             Calls DMINV (standard double-precision inversion subroutine (IBM))
                             Computes deflections Y(J)
      65 - 67
     68-86
                             Tests and recomputes Z(I,J) if negative deflections are found
   87-127
                             Computes shear at nodes and at column faces
128-131
                             Computes bending moments
                                    J E BOWLES PROG TO SOLVE CONT FTG BY FINITE DIFFERENCES
PROG USES 10 DIV. AND TWO COL (DADS AT ANY LOC.
DIMENSION Y(11), R(12), V(11), M(11), C(11), Z(11,12), SR(11)
DIMENSION Z(11,12), ZA(11), ZB(11), TITLE(20)
DOUBLE PRECISION Z, ZZ, D, ZA, ZB, UTS, UTS
READ (1,1000, END=150) TITLE, UT1, UT2, UT3, UT4, UT5, UT6
FDRMAT(2004X, EC, 8, DC, H, X, X1
FORMAT(7F10.4)
WRITE(3,1001) TITLE
FORMAT(1', T5, 20A4, //)
AL = 10.**
INER = 8*(DC**3)/12.
READ(1,200) P1, P2, MN1, MN2
WRITE(3, 98) SK, UT6, B, UT1, DC, UT1, EC, UT5, H, UT1, X, UT1, XI, UT1, INER, UT1,
AL, UT1
FORMAT(1', 'SOIL MODULUS = ', F7, 2, 1X, A7, 5X, 'FIG WIDTH = ', F6, 2, 1Y, A2
134-141
                             Computes soil nodal reactions and soil pressure
0009
0010
0011
0012
0013
0014
                                READ(1,200)P1,P2,Mii,MN2
WRITE(3,98)SK.UT6,B,UT1,DC,UT1,EC,UT5,H,UT1,X,UT1,X1,UT1,INER,UT1,
1AL,UT1
8 FORMAT(15,'SOIL MODULUS = ',F7.2,1X,A7,5X,'FTG WIDTH = ',F6.2,1X,A2,'
15X,'FTG DEPTH = ',F6.2,1X,A2,'T5,'MDD OF ELAS = ',F10.0,1X,A7,5X,'TSC
2=',F5.2,1X,A2,'SX,'MDM OF INERTIA = ',F5.2,1X,A2,'T5,'DIST 2ND COL = ',
3F6.2,1X,A2,'X,MDM OF INERTIA = ',F7.4,1X,A2,'***4',5X,'FTG LENGTH
WRITE(3,99)P1,UT3,MN1,UT4,P2,UT3,**MN2,UT4
9 FORMAT(15,'COL LOADS & MOMENTS: ',T30,'P1 = ',F6.2,1X,A4,'SX,'MOMENT
1 M1 = ',F7.2,1X,A4/T30,'P2 = ',F6.2,1X,A4,'SX,'MOMENT M2 = ',F7.2,1X,
2A4//)
SK = SK*B
AA = EC*INER/H**2
BB=(H**2.)*SK
CC=H*SK
OD 3 I=1,1
DO 3 J=1,12
3 Z(I,J)=0.0
DO 8 I=1,1
DO 3 J=1,12
3 Z(I,J)=0.0
GO TO 21
5 IF([*H-X-X1]6,6,7
6 Z(I,J)=0.0
GO TO 21
7 Z(I,J)=P1*([*H-X)+MN1
-GO TO 21
7 Z(I,J)=P1*([*H-X)+MN1
-GO TO 21
7 Z(I,J)=AA+BB
Z(I,J)=I*BB
DO 9 I=2,8
C = 4.0
DO 9 J=I,8
C = 4.0
DO 9 J=I,8
C = 4.0
Z(I,J)=CC+1.0
Z(I,J)=CC+1.0
Z(I,J)=CC+1.0
0015
0016
                               5
```

```
0057
0058
0059
0060
0061
0062
0063
0064
00667
00688
00699
00071
000773
000775
000778
000778
000881
000883
000883
000885
0087
0088
0089
0090
0091
0092
0100
011123
011123
011123
011118
011118
011123
011223
011223
011223
0126
0127
```

#### 6-4 RING FOUNDATIONS BY FINITE DIFFERENCES

The ring foundation of Chap. 5 can be solved by the finite-difference method. Answers using 20 divisions are almost identical to that of the matrix solution; e.g., by finite differences the ring of Example 5-2 is:

Location, deg	Matrix, ft-kips	Finite difference, ft-kips (at column node)
0	403.3	398.9
18	18.1	-17.8
36	-183.6	-181.7

The matrix values are those plotted in Fig. 5-9.

Referring to Fig. 6-2, the solution would be obtained as follows:

- 1 Compute the mean radius defining the center of area and locate columns on this mean radius.
- 2 Compute the chord distance of each segment to use as h.
- 3 Along any diameter such as AB or CD (Fig. 6-2) sum moments.

Since there are 20 diameters available for 20 segments, this yields 20 equations. Two typical equations obtained are (see Fig. 6-2)

$$\sum M_{AB} = 0$$

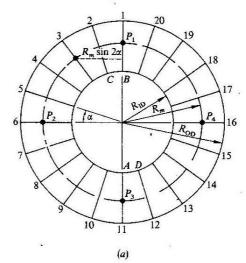
 $R_m k_s A(y_2 \sin \alpha + y_3 \sin 2\alpha + y_4 \sin 3\alpha + y_5 \sin 4\alpha + y_6 \sin 5\alpha + y_7 \sin 4\alpha)$ 

+ 
$$y_8 \sin 3\alpha + y_9 \sin 2\alpha + y_{10} \sin \alpha$$
) -  $P_2 R_m \sin 5\alpha = \sum M_{AB}$  (a)

But

$$\sum M_{AB} = \frac{EI}{h^2} (y_{20} - 2y_1 + y_2) + \frac{EI}{h^2} (y_{10} - 2y_{11} + y_{12})$$
 (a-1)

It is evident for  $P_2$  at 90° from AB that sin  $5\alpha = 90^\circ$ .



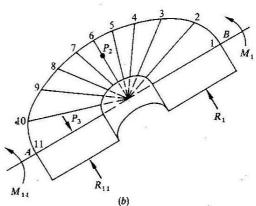


FIGURE 6-2

Ring foundation by finite differences: (a) ring divided into 20 segments for segment central angles of 18°; (b) semidiameter for summing moments; note that with AB rotated counterclockwise  $d\alpha$ , the reaction  $R_1$  shown and  $P_1$  (not shown) are not considered in either the moment or shear computation.

We next rotate the diameter to cut the ring at nodes 2 and 12. Summing moments gives

$$R_m k_s A(y_3 \sin \alpha_1 + y_4 \sin 2\alpha + y_5 \sin 3\alpha + y_6 \sin 4\alpha + y_7 \sin 5\alpha + y_8 \sin 4\alpha + y_9 \sin 3\alpha + y_{10} \sin 2\alpha + y_{11} \sin \alpha) - P_2 R_m \sin 4\alpha - P_3 R_m \sin \alpha = \sum M_{CD}$$
(b)

But

$$\sum M_{CD} = \frac{EI}{h^2} (y_1 - 2y_2 + y_3) + \frac{EI}{h^2} (y_{11} - 2y_{12} + y_{13})$$
 (b-1)

It is evident that 20 moment events such as this can be made to occur and yield enough equations to match unknowns. Unfortunately some of these equations are not independent, and the author was never able to deduce which ones are the culprits. One rapidly discovers this unpleasant event by trying to solve the set of equations.

It may also be evident that one can utilize equations for shear in a somewhat similar manner at each section; thus, for section AB, diameter rotated  $d\alpha$  counterclockwise to include  $R_{11}$  but exclude  $R_1$ , summing the shear of one-half the ring as

$$\sum F_{\nu} = 0$$

gives in expanded form

$$k_s A_s (y_2 + y_3 + y_4 + y_5 + y_6 + y_8 + y_9 + y_{10} + y_{11}) - P_2 - P_3 = \sum V$$
(c)

where  $A_s$  is the area of any segment. But  $\sum V = \sum EIy'''$ , or in finite differences (Table 4-1)

$$\frac{EI}{2h^2}(y_3 - 2y_2 + y_{20} - y_{19}) + \frac{EI}{2h^3}(y_9 - 2y_{10} + 2y_{12} - y_{13})$$
 (c-1)

The author tried various combinations of the shear and moment equations but never found a reliable combination of 20 independent equations.

Incidentally one of the 20 independent equations should be  $\sum F_{\nu} = 0$  or

$$k_s A_s \sum_{i=1}^{20} Y_i - \sum_{i=1}^{n} P_i = 0 \tag{d}$$

Combining all possible shear equations (20) plus all possible moment equations (20) and the  $\sum F_V = 0$  yields 41 equations, which in matrix notation is

$$A_{41\times 20}Y_{20\times 1} = P_{41\times 1} \tag{e}$$

One may try to solve this for Y as

$$Y = A^{-1}P \tag{f}$$

but A is of size  $41 \times 20$ , which is nonsquare and cannot be inverted.

Recalling from Chap. 4 that we can premultiply both sides of any equation (including matrix equations) by a common factor, let us multiply by  $A^T$  (we know what that is, and we do have to multiply by something of a matrix size to allow us to

cancel interior dimensions, as illustrated in Chap. 4, to end up with a square matrix). Multiplying, we obtain

$$A_{20\times 41}^T A_{41\times 20} Y_{20\times 1} = A_{20\times 41}^T P_{41\times 1} \tag{g}$$

or

$$[A^T A]_{20 \times 20} Y_{20 \times 1} = A^T P_{20 \times 1}$$

which is now square, so that it can be inverted. It also matches the matrix dimensions of the right-hand side of the equation. Remember that the A matrix above was  $41 \times 20$ .

Now solving for Y

$$Y_{20\times 1} = [A^T A]_{20\times 20}^{-1} A^T P_{20\times 1} \tag{h}$$

and canceling interior terms, we see that an equality of matrix size (20  $\times$  1) is obtained. This also yields the solution of the ring.

A computer program is not furnished for this solution because the computer program in Chap. 5 is more efficient (matrix solution) in solving this problem.

#### THE HETENYI SOLUTION OF A BEAM ON AN **ELASTIC FOUNDATION**

The theoretical solution of a beam on an elastic foundation was treated in considerable detail by Hetenyi (1947). The solution (refer to Fig. 6-3) is based on the differential equation of a beam loaded with an intensity of pressure q. For a beam on soil, q is the soil-reaction pressure using the concept of the modulus-of-subgrade reaction as

$$q = k_s y \qquad (FL^{-2})$$

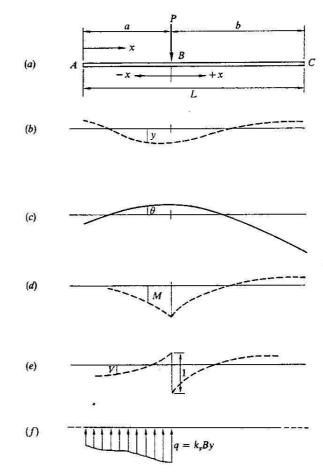
The differential equation is

$$EI\frac{d^4y}{dx^4} = -q = -k_s y \tag{6-2}$$

This is a linear fourth-order differential equation. The general solution is standard, with four arbitrary constants of the form

$$y = e^{\lambda x} (A \cos \lambda x + B \sin \lambda x) + e^{-\lambda x} (C \cos \lambda x + D \sin \lambda x)$$
 (6-3)

$$\lambda = \sqrt[4]{\frac{k_s B}{4EI}} \tag{6-4}$$



# FIGURE 6-3 Theoretical solution of the beam on an elastic foundation: (a) infinite or finite beam and alternative origins; (b) deflection; (c) slope; (d) moment curve; (e) shear; (f) probable pressure assuming constant transverse deflection (across width B).

where B, E, I = footing width, material, and section properties

 $k_s$  = subgrade modulus

With consistent units used under the radical,  $\lambda$  will have units of  $L^{-1}$ . We can differentiate Eq. (6-3) to obtain

y' = slope y'' = moment y''' = shear y'''' = load

Taking the alternate origin of x = 0 at A and inserting general boundary conditions, we find:

At x	Shear	Moment	Slope	Deflection	
0	0	0	Unknown	Unknown	
a (load)	To left + To right -	$M_L = -M_R$	$\theta_L = \theta_R$	Unknown	
L	0	0	Unknown	Unknown	

A special but limited case exists where  $a = b = \infty$  (and origin at B)

$$y' = 0$$
 at  $x = \pm \infty$   $y'' = 0$  at  $x = \pm \infty$   
 $y''' = \pm \frac{P}{2}$  at  $x = 0$   $y'''' = 0$  at  $x = \pm \infty$ 

An example of the form of solution obtained with this latter condition of an infinitely long beam with a concentrated load at the center is

$$M = \frac{P}{4\lambda} e^{-\lambda x} (\cos \lambda x - \sin \lambda x)$$
 (6-5)

$$V = \frac{-P}{2} e^{-\lambda x} \cos \lambda x \tag{6-5a}$$

The author [Bowles (1968)] has provided tables of the infinite-beam solution including shear and slope, together with the remainder of the equations. This reference may be consulted should the need arise.

The solution of major interest is the finite-length beam with a load at some distance a from the left end. Using the previously stated boundary conditions, we

$$y = \frac{P\lambda}{k_s B} \frac{1}{\sinh^2 \lambda L - \sin^2 \lambda L}$$

$$\times \left\{ 2 \cosh \lambda x \cos \lambda x \left( \sinh \lambda L \cos \lambda a \cosh \lambda b - \sin \lambda L \cosh \lambda a \cos \lambda b \right) + \left( \cosh \lambda x \sin \lambda x + \sinh \lambda x \cos \lambda x \right) \right.$$

$$\times \left[ \sinh \lambda L \left( \sinh \lambda a \cosh \lambda b - \cos \lambda a \sinh \lambda b \right) + \sinh \lambda L \left( \sinh \lambda a \cos \lambda b - \cosh \lambda a \sin \lambda b \right) \right] \right\}$$

$$\left\{ V = P \frac{1}{\sinh^2 \lambda L - \sin^2 \lambda L} \right.$$

$$\times \left\{ \left( \cosh \lambda x \sin \lambda x + \sinh \lambda x \cos \lambda x \right) \right.$$

$$\times \left( \sinh \lambda L \cos \lambda a \cosh \lambda b - \sin \lambda L \cosh \lambda a \cos \lambda b \right) + \sinh \lambda x \sin \lambda x$$

$$\times \left[ \sinh \lambda L \left( \sin \lambda a \cosh \lambda b - \cos \lambda a \sinh \lambda b \right) + \sin \lambda L \right.$$

$$\times \left( \sinh \lambda a \cos \lambda b - \cosh \lambda a \sin \lambda b \right) \right\}$$

$$\left\{ (6-7) \right.$$

$$M = \frac{P}{2\lambda} \frac{1}{\sinh^2 \lambda L - \sin^2 \lambda L}$$

$$\times \left\{ 2 \sinh \lambda x \sin \lambda x \left( \sinh \lambda L \cos \lambda a \cosh \lambda b - \sin \lambda L \cosh \lambda a \cos \lambda b \right) + \left( \cosh \lambda x \sin \lambda x - \sinh \lambda x \cos \lambda x \right) \right.$$

$$\times \left[ \sinh \lambda L \left( \sin \lambda a \cosh \lambda b - \cos \lambda a \sinh \lambda b \right) + \sin \lambda L \left( \sinh \lambda a \cos \lambda b - \cosh \lambda a \sin \lambda b \right) \right] \right\}$$

$$\left. (6-8)$$

These equations can be programmed for

$$\lambda L = \text{const}$$

Load at any point a = nL

to obtain coefficients for a solution aid. The computer program of Sec. 6-7 extends this set of equations to solve directly for shear and bending moments at the 0.1 points along a beam for a single point load and for a maximum of two point loads will sum the two sets of computations for a composite solution.

EXAMPLE 6-2 Solve Example 6-1 (also Example 5-1) using the Hetenyi solution. Compare the solution to the finite-element (Example 5-1) and finite-difference (Example 6-1) solutions. Use metric units.

SOLUTION Convert the appropriate dimensions to metric units (use Table 2-8):

$$SK = 48 \text{ kcf} = 7,540.5 \text{ kN/cu m}$$
 $EC = 468,000 \text{ ksf} = 2,2408,736 \text{ kN/sq m}$ 
 $B = 10 \text{ ft} = 3.048 \text{ m}$ 
 $L = 20 \text{ ft} = 6.096 \text{ m}$ 
 $DC = 20 \text{ in} = 0.508 \text{ m}$ 
 $X1 = 18 \text{ ft} = 5.486 \text{ m}$ 
 $SECONDO SECONDO SE$ 

Data cards for input are as follows:

#### Card Data

1	TITLE
2	UT1-UT6 (columns 1, 11, 21,, 51)
	M CM KN KN-M KN/SQ M KN/CU M
3	1. 0. ALIST > 1 lists extra data
4	1. R
4 5	7540.5 .6096 6.096 3.048 .508 22408736, 1378.7
6	1. R
7	7540.5 5.486 6.096 3.048 .508 22408736, 1378.7
8	-1, R

These eight data cards represent the input. The partial output is shown on Fig. E6-2.1.

> J E BOWLES EXAMPLE 6-2 HETENYI SOLUTION OF EX 6-1 USING METRIC UNITS RUN = 1.00 SHEAR = 1.806 LAMBDA = 0.29623 COL DIST = 5.4860 M LENGTH = 6.096 M FTG WIDTH = 3.0480 M FTG DEPTH MODULUS = 7540.50 KN/SQ M MOD ELAST =22408736.0 KN/S OF INERTIA =0.332985E-01 M \*\*4 CCL LOAD = 1378.72 KN DIST DEF SHEAR TOTAL DEFL. MOM AND SHEAR AT 0.1

#### FIGURE E6-2.1

Partial output for Hetenyi solution for Example 6-1 in metric units. Note that symmetry in deflection, moments, and shear is a check on this particular problem output.

A comparison of the maximum bending moment is as follows:

Method	Maximum bending moment, ft-kips	% difference*	$\lambda_L$
Finite-element	-693.7	0	
Finite-difference	<b>-706.9</b>	+2	
Hetenyi	-855.7 <sup>†</sup>	+23	1.81
Conventional	- 930.0	+34	535,0

#### 6-6 GENERAL COMMENTS ON HETENYI SOLUTION

The theoretical solution using the method proposed by Hetenyi provides reasonable computed values. Inspection of Table 6-1 indicates, however, that the values are in error (assuming the measured values are correct) from about the same amount as the finite-element method of Chap. 5 to somewhat higher orders of magnitude. When the end springs are increased, however, the finite-element solution is considerably more accurate.

The theoretical solution is much more difficult to use for general loading conditions than the finite-element method. If columns are not located at 0.1 points (to take advantage of tables or the included computer program), a theoretical solution is even more of a problem. Column moments will require the user to go back to the basic differential equation to develop a solution. It is not possible to include footingweight effects or footing separation from the soil in this solution, and it should be noted that when the footing tends to separate from the soil, its self weight will tend to reduce the separation effect.

The theoretical solution appears to be more sensitive to the modulus-of-subgrade reaction than the finite-element solution of Chap. 5.

Table 6-1 COMPARISON OF HETENYI METHOD TO VALUES REPORTED BY VESIĆ

$k_s$	Moment, in-kips		
	Measured	Hetenyi	$\lambda L$
98.2	+172.0	+147.7	0.982
98.2	-113.2	-147.3	0.982
123.3	+61.4	+67.58	2.07
123.3	-48.4	-63.34	2.07
150.0	+37.0	+40.24	3.908
	98.2 123.3 123.3	98.2 +172.0 98.2 -113.2 123.3 +61.4 123.3 -48.4	98.2 +172.0 +147.7 98.2 -113.2 -147.3 123.3 +61.4 +67.58 123.3 -48.4 -63.34

<sup>\*</sup> See Table 5-1 for loading data.

 $<sup>\</sup>dagger M = 1,160.27/1.356 = 855.7$  (converting metric to fps).

The theoretical solution for more than one load is based on superposition of effects. Many users feel this is invalid; however, it should be evident that the end result is simply a number and since the computations are merely numbers, the answer is numerically correct. Whether it is physically correct or not will require an examination, just as superposition in any structural design requires the designer's inspection to see if the computed value is in the range where superposition is valid.

It has been proposed [Vesić (1961)] that one may observe the dimensionless parameter  $\lambda L$ , defined as

$$\lambda L = L \sqrt[4]{\frac{k_s B}{4EI}}$$

to determine whether the conventional solution of Chap. 3 or the beam-on-anelastic-foundation solution is the better method for a particular solution.

The proposal is

 $\lambda L < 0.8$ conventional solution  $0.8 < \lambda L < \pi$ finite beam on elastic foundation  $\lambda L > \pi$ infinite beam on elastic foundation

Table 6-1, with two types of loads, does not indicate that this criterion is significant, nor does a comparison of the tabulated data earlier presented (see Example 6-2) indicate an easily discernible trend. The original proposal was based on the observation that with small  $\lambda L$  values there is little change in computed moments up to some value (which has been found by the author to depend both on the load system and  $\lambda L$ ). Beyond this point larger changes in moment occur more rapidly with change in  $\lambda L$ ; beyond some larger limiting value of  $\lambda L$  the moment reaches essentially a lower limiting value. Because the  $\lambda L$  zone limits depend on load, footing flexibility, and soil modulus, the author makes no recommendations, especially with all the computational techniques presented herein to obtain a solution.

#### 6-7 COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR HETENYI SOLUTION

This program will compute deflections, shears, and moments at the 0.1 points for two loads located anywhere along the beam but the column loads must be placed at the nearest 0.1 points. The beam is assumed weightless. No provision is (or can be) made for excessive deflections or for footing separation. The designer should use ultimate loads if ultimate shears and moments are desired for strength design by ACI 318-71. This program will solve either fps or metric problems.

```
Line
                                     Operation
              1-4
                                      Bookkeeping
                                      READ TITLE, UNITS (two cards)
                    7
                                     READ
                                      AA = computation cycle; ALIST increases amount of output if > 0
                                     READ
                 18
                                     R = recycle for second column. If R = 0 or -1, sums shear and bending moments
                                      at 0.1 points for one (or both) column loads
                 21
                                      READ
                                      SK = soil modulus; X1 = distance from left end to column; EL = length; BF =
                                      width; DC = depth; EC = modulus of elasticity of footing; P(M) = column load.
                                      Use foot and kip units (meters and kilonewtons); do not use inches (or centimeters)
                 26
                                      XI = moment of inertia, ft<sup>4</sup> or m<sup>4</sup>, if DC is read as zero. If DC is read > 0.0, program
                                      computes I
                                      Computes nondimensional coefficients for 0.1 points along beam for deflection, shear,
    31-104
                                       and moment for each load position
                                            Ses nondimensional coefficients to compute deflections, shear, and bending moment on the actual beam loads

JE BONLES HETENYI SOLUTION FINITE BEAM ON ELAS. FOUND ORDER OF DATA CAROS IS I=IITLE; 2=UNITS: 3=A4: 4=R: 5=FIRST DA 6 = R: 72ND DATA--USE R = 0 FOR I-CDL: USE R = 0 AT END OF 2ND READ ALL UNITS AS FT OR METERS, KIRS DR KILD-NEWTONS DIMENSION AL(5:15),01(5:15),01(5:15), F(15), V(15), W(15), P(10) DOUBLE PRECISION UTS,UIS REAL LAMBDA AT READ (1.1000, END=150)TITLE,UTI,UTZ,UT3,UT4,UT5,UT6 READ (1.10)AA,ALIT, AA READ (1
                                       Uses nondimensional coefficients to compute deflections, shear, and bending moment
  119-144
                            0000
   0030
```

## **PROBLEMS**

- 6-1 Repeat the assignment of Prob. 3-5 using the finite-difference method.
- 6-2 Repeat the assignment of Prob. 3-5 using the Hetenyi method.
- 6-3 Check the tabulated values in Table 6-1 using the Hetenyi solution.

## REFERENCES

BOWLES, J. E. (1968): "Foundation Analysis and Design," chap. 5, McGraw-Hill, New York. HETENYI, M. (1946): "Beams on Elastic Foundation," University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, 255 pp.

MALTER, H. (1960): Numerical Solutions for Beams on Elastic Foundations, Trans. ASCE, vol. 125, pp. 757-791.

TENG, W. C. (1962): "Foundation Design," chap. 7, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N.J. VESIĆ, A. S. (1961): Bending of Beams Resting on Isotropic Elastic Solid, *J. Eng. Mech. Div.*, ASCE, vol. 87, EM2, pp. 35-53.

# ECCENTRICALLY LOADED FOOTINGS, NOTCHED FOOTINGS, AND MATS

## 7-1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter considers both conventional analysis procedures of eccentrically loaded footings, footings with notches (or holes), and mats as well as computer solutions. Actually for the computer solutions considered here these are all the same problem, namely, a plate on an elastic foundation. The conventional analysis, however, properly considers these three cases separately. The computer solutions utilize both the finite-difference solution considered in Chap. 4 and a finite-element solution, the details of which are introduced here.

## 7-2 ECCENTRICALLY LOADED FOOTINGS

Design limitations may require that a footing be loaded not at the center of area, or the column may transmit both axial force and moment (Fig. 7-1). In either case from statics  $\sum F_{\nu} = 0$  results in

R = P

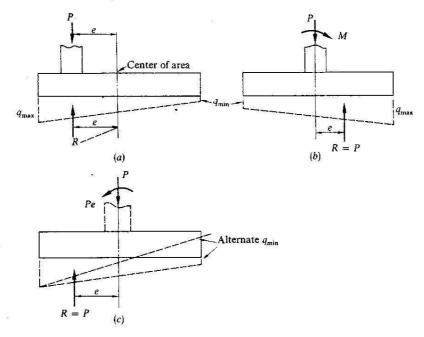


FIGURE 7-1 Footings with eccentricity (or moment). Eccentricity with respect to one axis is shown, but it may be about both the X and Y axes. (a) Eccentrically placed column. (b) Column with moment. (c) Equivalent of part (a).

and  $\sum M = 0$  with respect to a centroidal axis gives

$$e=\frac{M}{P}$$

Obviously the volume of the soil-pressure diagram is

$$R = \int_0^A q \ dA$$

Conventional design treats this problem as if the footing were a rigid body (Fig. 7-2) with superposition applicable; thus, the pressure intensity at footing corners is

$$q = \frac{P}{A} \pm \frac{M_x}{S_x} \pm \frac{M_y}{S_y}$$

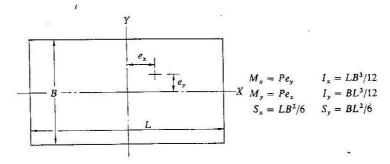


FIGURE 7-2 Eccentricity with respect to either or both axes and the footing as a rigid body.

which simplifies for a rectangle to

$$q = \frac{P}{BL} \left( 1 \pm \frac{6e_y}{B} \pm \frac{6e_x}{L} \right) \tag{7-1}$$

as obtained from Fig. 7-2. As long as

$$e_x \le \frac{L}{6}$$
 and  $e_y \le \frac{B}{6}$ 

the entire footing is considered effective. When the eccentricity is on only one axis, say the X axis as in Fig. 7-3, the maximum soil pressure when e > L/6 can be computed as follows. Let L' = effective footing length; then

$$\frac{qL'}{2} = R = P$$

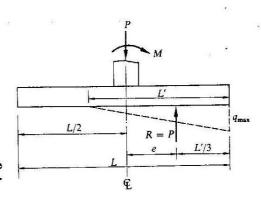


FIGURE 7-3 Conditions for eccentricity out of middle third of base and rigid-footing assumption.

Note that the pressure diagram is a triangle; therefore, R acts at L/3 from  $q_{max}$ , and

$$e=\frac{L}{2}-\frac{L'}{3}$$

by inspection of the figures. Solving for L' and q, we obtain

$$q = \frac{2P}{3(L/2 - e)} \tag{7-2}$$

with terms identified in Fig. 7-3.

When the eccentricity is with respect to both axes and is larger than L/6 and B/6, the method of Example 7-4 can be used. An alternative solution given by Bowles (1968) is readily available in the cited reference.

#### 7-3 MATS: CONVENTIONAL ANALYSIS

The conventional design of mat foundations uses the same basic approach as the spread footing. The principal difference is that the mat is larger and carries more column loads.

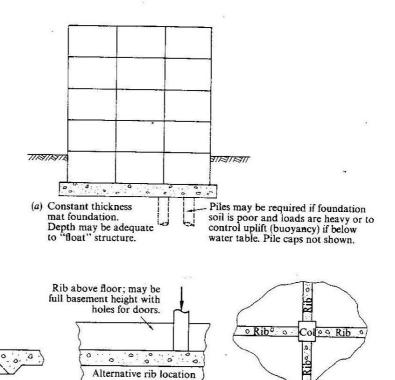
Mats are used where the soil is low in bearing capacity or the loads are such that the footings use 50 percent or more of the total site area. They may also be used in combination with basement walls to "float" the structure, i.e., on an excavation which removes the approximate building weight to reduce settlements. By virtue of their bridging action, mats tend toward much less differential settlement, and thus the designer may use higher allowable soil pressures. This bridging action is an asset also where the site contains both firmer material and pockets, or lenses, of soft material.

Mats may be ribbed where the column spacing is irregular and/or for economy in using a relatively thin plate over most of the site. Alternatively, mats may be thickened at the column locations for economy and to provide a depth sufficient to resist shear. Figure 7-4 illustrates several mat foundations.

The conventional design of mat foundations assumes rigidity of the mat [Teng (1962), ACI (1966), Bowles (1968)], just like the spread footing. Therefore, taking  $\sum$  (column loads) =  $P_{\rm r}$ , we have

$$q = \frac{P_t}{BL} \left( 1 \pm \frac{6e_y}{B} \pm \frac{6e_x}{L} \right)$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This is a rule of thumb, and what must be considered is the cost of footing formwork versus the cost of additional reinforcing steel required to maintain continuity.



(d) Ribs may run one or both

ways as required for stiffness.

FIGURE 7-4 Mat foundations.

(b) Thickened pad at columns to

satisfy diagonal tension shear.

as in Eq. (7-1). The eccentricities of P, with respect to the center of area are obtained using methods of statics.

Ribbed mat to provide addit-

ional rigidity. Rib beneath

slab may be costly to form.

With the soil pressure obtained it is usual practice to divide the mat up into column strips each way and, using approximate moment factors of  $wL^2/10$  or  $wL^2/12$ , to compute the bending moments in the strips. Depth for diagonal-tension shear is obtained by the method of Chap. 3 (although with low soil pressures it is conservative to neglect the soil pressure in the punching shear zone). Alternatively one may use moment distribution [Goodman and Karol (1968)] to refine the computations somewhat.

EXAMPLE 7-1 For the given mat-foundation layout, design the thickness and

obtain the steel-reinforcing-bar requirements using the conventional design procedures, ACI 318-71 and ultimate-strength design (see Fig. E7-1.1). Other data:

$$f_c' = 3,000 \text{ psi}$$
  $f_y = 60,000 \text{ psi}$  all columns = 15 × 15 in  $q_a = 1.2 \text{ ksf}$  use average load factor = 1.55 for given loads

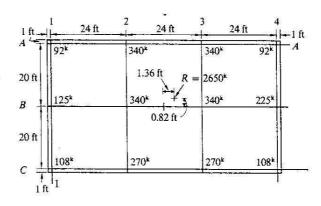


FIGURE E7-1.1 Mat-foundation layout.

SOLUTION Mat foundation:

 $\sum P = 2,650$  kips for all 12 columns

Locate resultant:

First  $\sum M$  line 1-1

$$2,650\overline{X} = 24(340 + 340 + 270) + 48(340 + 340 + 270) + 72(92 + 225 + 108)$$

$$= 24(950) + 48(950) + 72(425)$$

$$= 950(72) + 425(72) = 1,375(72)$$

$$\overline{X} = 37.36 \text{ ft} \qquad \text{or } 1.36 \text{ ft from cga}$$

Second  $\sum M$  line A-A

$$2,650\overline{Y} = 20(125 + 340 + 340 + 225) + 40(108 + 270 + 270 + 108)$$
  
=  $20(1,030) + 40(756) = 20,600 + 30,240$   
 $\overline{Y} = \frac{50,840}{2,650} = 19.18 \text{ ft}$  or  $0.82 \text{ ft from cga}$ 

Compute soil pressure at critical locations:

$$I_x = \frac{74(42^3)}{12} \qquad I_y = \frac{42(74^3)}{12}$$

$$= \frac{74(74,088)}{12} = 456,876 \text{ ft}^4 \qquad = \frac{42(405,224)}{12} = 1,418,284 \text{ ft}^4$$

$$A = 74(42) = 3,108 \text{ ft}^2$$

$$\frac{P}{A} = \frac{2,650}{3,108} = 0.853 \text{ ksf}$$

$$M_x = Py_0 = 2,650(0.82) = 2,173 \text{ ft-kips}$$

$$M_y = Px_0 = 2,650(1.36) = 3,604 \text{ ft-kips}$$

At corner A-1

$$\sigma = 0.853 - \frac{3,604(37)}{1,418,284} + \frac{2,173(21)}{456,876} = 0.853 - 0.094 + 0.0999 = 0.859 \text{ ksf}$$

At corner A-4

$$\sigma = 0.853 + 0.094 + 0.099 = 1.046 \text{ ksf} < 1.2$$
 O.K.

At corner C-1

$$\sigma = 0.853 - 0.094 - 0.099 = 0.660 \text{ ksf}$$

At corner C-4

$$\sigma = 0.853 + 0.094 - 0.099 = 0.848 \text{ ksf}$$

Due to such small differences in the computed soil pressure assume

$$\sigma = 0.9 \text{ ksf}$$

In long direction (and take L as center to center of column distance)

$$+M = -M = \frac{wL^2}{10}$$

For any strip in long direction

$$M_{\text{design}} = \frac{0.9(24)^2}{10} = 51.8 \text{ ft-kips/ft of width}$$

For any strip in short direction take  $M = wL^2/8$  since there is only a two-span equivalent beam compared to a three-span beam in the long direction:

$$M_{\text{design}} = \frac{0.9(20)^2}{8} = 45 \text{ ft-kips/ft of width}$$

## 216 ANALYTICAL AND COMPUTER METHODS IN FOUNDATION ENGINEERING

Compute required mat thickness d ( $D \approx d + 3\frac{1}{2}$  in); since diagonal tension will control,

$$v_c = 4\phi\sqrt{f_c'}$$
  
 $v_c = 186.2 \text{ psi} = 26.81 \text{ ksf}$  (Table 3-2)

For a corner load (neglect upward soil pressure of 0.9 ksf on area in diagonal tension as conservative) see Fig. E7-1.2:

Perimeter = 
$$2(d/2 + 1.625) = d + 3.25$$

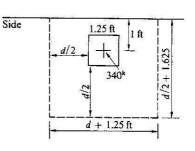
and

$$(d + 3.25)26.81 = 108(1.55)$$
  
 $d + 3.25 = 6.24$ 

$$d = 6.24 - 3.25 = 2.99 \text{ ft}$$

Check side load and include upward soil pressure (interior loads not critical)

Perimeter = 
$$2(d/2 + 1.625) + d + 1.25$$
  
=  $2d + 4.50$   
and Area =  $A = (d + 1.25)(d/2 + 1.625)$   
 $(2d + 4.50)26.81 = 340(1.55)$   
 $-.9(1.55)(d^2/2 + 2.25d + 2.03)$   
 $.697d^2 + 56.76d = 403.52$   
 $d^2 + 81.43d = 578.94$ 



and completing the square

FIGURE E7-1.2

Corner

$$d = 47.29 - 40.72 = 6.57 \text{ ft}$$
 say 6 ft 7 in

Select steel long direction (for  $f_y = 60$ ,  $f'_c = 3$  ksi,  $a = 1.96A_s$ )

$$M_u = \phi A_s f_y \left( d - \frac{a}{2} \right) \qquad \frac{M_u}{0.9 f_y} = \frac{51.8(1.55)}{0.9(60)} = 1.487$$

$$A_s [6.57(12) - 0.98 A_s] = 1.487(12)$$

$$0.98 A_s^2 - 78.84 A_s = -17.844$$

$$A_s = -40.00 + 40.22 = 0.22 \text{ sq in/ft}$$

Check minimum amount (use ACI, art. 10-5.1, as conservative):

$$P = \frac{200}{f_y} = 0.00333$$

 $A_s = 0.0033(42)(12) = 1.68 \text{ sq in/ft}$  controls both directions

Use two no. 8 bars each way top and bottom at 1 ft center to center

$$A_s = 2(0.79) = 1.58 < 1.68$$
 but O.K.

# 7-4 MATS: FINITE-DIFFERENCE SOLUTION

The finite-difference solution holds considerable promise for mat analysis. This approach has been used [Deryck and Severn (1960, 1961), Severn (1966), Bowles (1968)] to analyze large flat slabs on an elastic medium. The finite-difference solution utilizes thin-plate theory, but when the plan dimensions are reasonable compared to the thickness, the error [Frederick (1957) "Discussion"] is neglecting the plate thickness effect is very small.

A major problem of the finite-difference method (and a much more serious problem using the author's finite-element method of Sec. 7-7) is the large matrix to be solved. Included in the author's computer program is the product-inverse method, which can solve perhaps a 1,000  $\times$  1,000 matrix if the user can afford paying for that much computer time. This method took the author about  $5\frac{1}{2}$  hr of IBM 360 computation time to solve the  $315 \times 315$  matrix used in the included example. This method is slow, both because of the very large number of computations and because the matrix is stored on disk (or tape) and only one column at a time is operated on. Relatively slow solutions are a fact of life on small to medium computers with limited core space. Although alternative special equation-solving techniques such as relaxation have been used, the product-inverse method appears to be as rapid as any (see also Sec. 7-7).

The grid values given in Fig. 4-3 can be used to solve any rectangular (or square) grid problem if they are suitably modified. For example, if a corner is as shown in Fig. 7-5, as would occur with a notch, one can obtain the finite-difference equation for the point using the center-point grid system and the moment relationship

$$\frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial x^2} + \mu \frac{\partial^2 w}{\partial y^2} = 0 \tag{7-3}$$

Also one may use the shear relationship of

$$\frac{\partial^3 w}{\partial x^3} + (2 - \mu) \frac{\partial^3 w}{\partial x \partial y^2} = 0 ag{7-4}$$

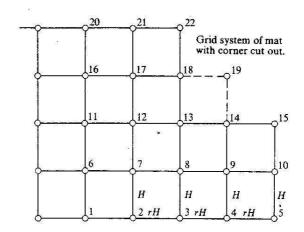


FIGURE 7-5

An arbitrary grid and numbering scheme for node points to illustrate the modification of the central-point finite-difference equation of Fig. 4-3i for point 13 above. Point 19 is off the plate.

i.e., moments and shears perpendicular to free edges are zero, but this is not needed in the example to be illustrated.

If point 19 were on the plate, no problem would exist, but since it is not, it will be taken as a fictitious point and the relationship of Eq. (7-3) will be used to obtain its value. Expanding Eq. (7-3) with central finite differences at node 18 (the moment perpendicular to the edge equals 0), we obtain

$$\frac{1}{(rH)^2}(w_{17}-2w_{18}+w_{19})+\frac{\mu}{H^2}(w_{22}-2w_{18}+w_{13})=0$$

Canceling  $H^2$  and combining terms, we have

$$w_{17} - 2w_{18} + w_{19} + \mu r^2 w_{22} - 2\mu r^2 w_{18} + \mu r^2 w_{13} = 0$$

Solving for w<sub>19</sub> gives

$$w_{19} = -\mu r^2 w_{13} - w_{17} + (2 + 2\mu r^2) w_{18} - \mu r^2 w_{22}$$

Substitution of this value of  $w_{19}$  into the difference expression at node 13 and applying  $2r^2/r^4$ , we obtain the finite-difference equation for node 13 (using the notation of Table 4-2 where possible and \* as product)

$$X10 * w_3 + X18 * w_7 + X15 * w_8 + X18 * w_9 + X27 * w_{11} + X16 * w_{12} + (X22 - 2\mu) * w_{13} + X16 * w_{14} + X27 * w_{15} + 0 * w_{17} + (-4 + 4\mu) * w_{18} + (1 - 2\mu) * w^{22}$$

$$= \frac{1}{Dr^5} \left[ PH^2 - k_s(rH)^2 * w_{13} \right]$$
 (7-5)

If necessary, the user can obtain the finite-difference equations when the notch is one node point from the end or other configuration not shown in Fig. 4-3. With this preliminary discussion, let us proceed to a simple example to illustrate the computer program. Due to space limitations, the computer output listing of the equations, etc., will not be shown.

From Fig. 4-3 and Table 4-2 and referring to the sketch in Example 7-4, at point (1,1), we write (using the computer notation and omitting all zero terms)

$$X3 * W(1,1) + X2 * W(1,2) + X1 * W(1,3) + X5 * W(2,1) + X4 * W(2,2)$$
  
+  $X6 * W(3,1) = P(1,1) - \frac{k_s(rH^2)}{D} * W(1,1)$ 

Simplifying, we see that the soil-reaction term is additive to W(1,1), and so we obtain

$$\left[X3 + \frac{k_s(rH^2)}{D}\right] * W(1,1) + X2 * W(1,2) + \cdots = P(1,1)$$

as the first of 49 equations required to solve the problem. The value of P(1,1), either zero or nonzero, is entered in the constant matrix.

At point (1,2) we have

$$X2 * W(1,1) + X8 * W(1,2) + X7 * W(1,3) + X1 * W(1,4) + X9 * W(2,1)$$
  
+  $X12 * W(2,2) + X9 * W(2,3) + X11 * W(3,2)$ 

= P(1,2) 
$$-\frac{k_s(rH^2)}{D} * W(1,2)$$

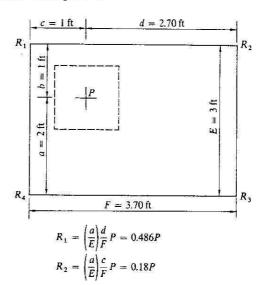
which is the second of 49 equations. The remaining equations are formed in a like manner and solved using the enclosed computer program.

The computer program can include the weight of the footing if desired. If nodal deflections are negative (upward) or zero, the soil spring effect is removed from the computations, i.e., by not adding the term

$$\frac{k_s(rH^2)}{D}$$

to that W(I,J) node. If negative deflections are encountered, it will be more correct to include the footing weight.

EXAMPLE 7-2 Repeat Example 7-1 as a mat by finite differences. Figure E7-2.2 illustrates the grid using  $3.7 \times 3$  ft or r = 1.233. The soil modulus is 36 kcf,  $E_c =$ 468,000 ksf, and D = 3.833 ft;  $\mu = 0.150$ , and there will be 40 P-matrix entries due to prorating column loads to the four adjacent nodes using simple beam theory (Fig. E7-2.1). Note that D is not that from Example 7-1.



FIGÚRE E7-2.1 Prorating column loads to adjacent nodes using simple beam analysis.

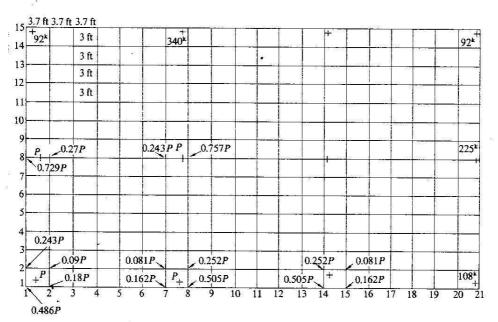


FIGURE E7-2.2 Grid for finite-difference solution with 315 nodes for 74  $\,\times\,$  42 ft mat with columns as shown.

Card	Data				
1	TITLE			7.00	
2 3	UNITS UT1-U	T6 standard l	FU1 =	12, leave F	U2-FU4=0
3	15 21 40 1				
	H RH T	E	SM	UNITWT	XMU
4	3.00 3.70 3.8	333 468000.	36.	.150	.150
	Sample P-matri	ix entries are [	I,J, P(I.	J), kips]:	
5	1 1 52.490				•
	1 2 19.440	Ü			
	1 7 43.740				
	15 21 44.760	j			

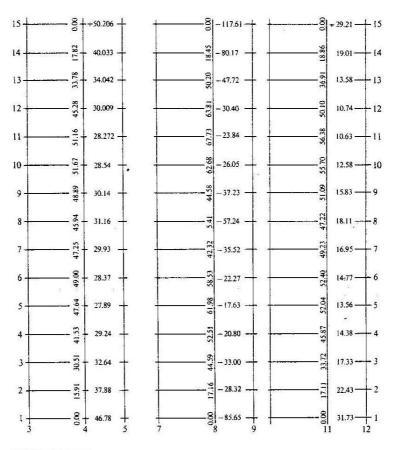


FIGURE E7-2.3
Partial finite difference output for selected nodes for comparison with Example 7-1.

The resulting Y matrix is  $315 \times 315$ . Output for columns 3 to 5 and 7 to 12 (all rows shown) is given in Fig. E7-2.3 (p. 221). Moments shown are in foot-kips. This solution summed forces to give

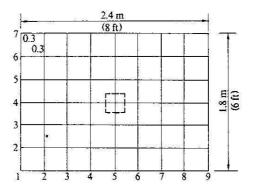
Sum soil reactions = 4,459.2 kips

Actual vertical load = 4,436.8 kips

indicating that the computation error was negligible.

////

EXAMPLE 7-3 Compute the bending moments of the rectangular spread footing (metric) shown in Fig. E7-3.1. Use a grid of  $0.3 \times 0.3$  m. Take  $E_c = 22,408,730$ 



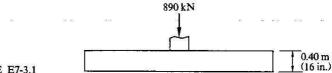


FIGURE E7-3.1

kN/sq m (3,250 ksi). The allowable soil pressure is 2 kg/sq cm, from which one can compute  $k_s \approx 23,536$  kN/cu m. Concrete at 150 pcf gives 23.56 kN/cu m. Poisson's ratio is taken as 0.15.

#### SOLUTION Data cards consist of:

#### Data

1	TITLE (Fig. E7-3.2)	
2	UNITS (M CM ··· KN/CU M 100. ) UT1-UT6 and FU1 = 100	
3	.30 0.3 .40 22408730. 23536. 23.56	150
4	4 5 890. load, KN)	

Figure E7-3.2 illustrates I/O and the deflection matrix including counters for zero deflections. Figure E7-3.3 illustrates computer output of bending moments (kilonewton-meters), as well as nodal soil reactions and pressures. Computational checks consists in checking values for symmetry and  $\sum F_v = 0$  (figures on pages 224–227).

////

EXAMPLE 7-4 Solve the footing shown in Fig. E7-4.1a by the finite-difference method. The footing is  $6 \times 6$  ft  $\times 1.50$  ft thick. The footing is concentrically loaded with 60 kips and bending moments about both axes of 120 ft-kips. Compare the results to the hand solution of Bowles (1968, chap. 5). Take  $k_s = 60$  kcf and  $E_c = 468,000$ ksf. Note that the dashed line in footing sketch is the Bowles' line of zero pressure, which is "exact" using calculus. The soil pressure of 22.5 ksf at node (7,7) is obtained from the hand solution (figures on pages 228 and 229).

SOLUTION Solve as a mat on an elastic foundation by finite difference both including the footing weight (which the hand solution does not) and as a weightless footing. Converting the concentric column load with moments to an eccentric column load without moments results in the equivalent column location of node (6,6) with a load of 60 kips.

The data cards are:

Card	Data
1	TITLE
2	UNITS (FT, IN-KIPS/CU FT 12.)
	UT1-UT6 and FU1 = 12.
3	1. 1. 1.50 468000. 60150* .150
4	6 6 60.

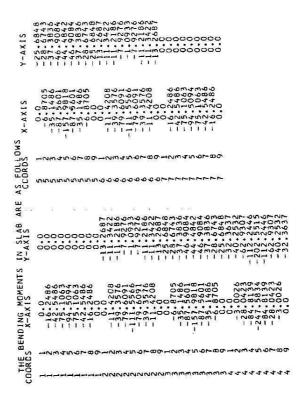
<sup>\*</sup> For the weightless case UNITWT = 0.0.

					(86)
	2				
EIGHT	I KN/SQ				
3	30.0				
METRIC	-VALUE 224087				2
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	0 0F	M 00			
IN REC	0.40 N = 235	= 1.8	51	<i>9999999</i>	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
SLZ	= 9 GLUS R = 1	>		RETURE	±0000000000000000000000000000000000000
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0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	X IS (CM)	0.091998 0.921698 0.922860 0.922860 0.912860 0.912860 0.913860	CCOUNTIN = 0	•
000000	DEFLECTION MATRIX	0.90473 0.90473 0.90762 0.90762 0.90762	. 0 =	P
0000000 0000000 0000000 00000000 000000	NON-LINEAR DEFLE	0.89934 0.89934 0.899444 0.899444 0.899444 0.899034	LCOUN (NN)	E7-3.2
してきながらで	THE NON-	→0.00 4 to 0.0 -	NN II	FIGURE E7-3.

THE DEFLECTION MATRIX IS (M )

FIGURE 57-3.2 Input data and load matrix for Example 7-3. Also shown are output deflection matrices.



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rrcws	40 9.75318 9.75540 9.673372 19.52924 4.69419 9.75540 19.62372 19.14969 9.430419 9.75540 19.62372 19.14969 9.430419 9.75540 19.62372 19.14969 9.430419 9.52540 19.62372 19.14969 9.44529 9.44529 9.45239 9.45239 9.45239 9.45239 9.45239 9.45239 9.45239 9.452924 9.5540 9.75540 9.65859 9.65859 9.52924 9.69419		92 217.62641 216.78692 214.63555 211.76114 208.63083 94 221.01783 219.67694 216.90885 213.61717 210.27996 94 221.01783 210.67694 216.90885 213.61717 210.27996 95 221.01783 210.67694 216.90885 213.61717 210.27996 95 221.01783 210.67694 216.90885 213.61717 210.27996 96 219.18352 210.67694 216.90885 213.61717 209.55741	O KN
ARE AS FCLLCWS	9.74 19.63 19.63 19.63 19.74 19.74 19.75 19.75 19.75 19.75 19.75 19.75 19.75 19.75 19.75 19.75 19.75 19.75 19.75	KN/SQ M, 1S	216.78692 218.19696 220.57694 219.67694 218.19696 218.19696	KN 890.000
REACTIONS (KN )	199.55.25.89 199.55.25.89 199.55.25.89 199.55.25.99 199.55.99 199.55.99 199.55.99 199.55.99 199.55.99	PRESSURE, KI	2216-335 2216-335 2216-35 2216-35 2216-35 2216-35 2316 2316-35 2316 2316 2316 2316 2316 2316 2	ERNAL LOADS = 40.711 = 932.181
NODAL	9 52924 19 124969 19 227553 19 227553 19 22553 19 14969	NCDAL SOIL	211.76114 212.77449 213.61717 213.61717 213.61717 213.77449	OF FOOTING EXTERNAL FOOTING WEIGHT = SOIL REACTIONS =
1 HE	400004 64444 64444 64444 64444 6444 644	1HE	208.631 2008.631 2100.27546 2100.27546 22100.27549 22100.27549 22100.27549 2310.27549 2310.27549 2310.27549	TOTAL SUM OF FOO

FIGURE E7-3.3

Bending moments, nodal reactions, and soil pressures for Example 7-3. Note symmetry of values (as expected) in this problem. Sum of vertical forces are also satisfied (930.7 versus 932.2 kN).

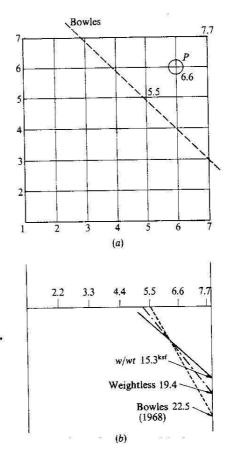


FIGURE E7-4.1 See Fig. E7-4.2 for partial output shown above.

The solid line of Fig. E7-4.1a represents the output. As one would expect, the inclusion of footing weight tends to reduce the maximum pressure. With a weightless footing the pressures are nearly equal. Note also that the line of zero pressure is about the same in all cases. Figure E7-4.2 illustrates the partial computer output for given input data. Note the approximate line of zero pressure and soil pressure of 15.3 ksf at node (7, 7) are shown on the computer printout.

COOR	E BEND CS	ING MOMENTS	IN SLAB ARE	AS FOLLOWS COORDS	X-AXIS	Y-AXIS		
111111111222222223333333334444444	1234567123456712345671234567	0.0 -0.3836 -0.4840 -0.4840 -0.3880 -0.3880 -0.3880 -0.4783 -0.4783 -0.4976 -0.3310 -0.1412 -0.2433 -0.40526 -0.6174 -	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.3 0.3 0.3	1234567-1234567-1234567	0.02749 0.6349 0.74420 0.74420 0.74420 0.04968 1.32222 0.000 0.4968 1.32222 0.73222 0.000 0.73222 0.7322 0.7322 0.74319 0.743110	-0.357262 -0.46391211 -0.62822119 -0.1301104 -0.130116032 -0.130116032 -0.130116032 -0.130116032 -0.130116032 -0.130116032 -0.130116032 -0.130116032		
		THE	NODAL REACTION	ONS (KIPS)	ARE AS FOLLO	2 w S		
All .	1234567	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	3 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.17019 1.60055	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.17287 3.20539 3.11833	5 0.0 0.0 0.17287 3.20777 6.24248 4.63712	6 0.0 0.17019 3.20539 6.24248 9.28056 6.15609	7 0.08349 1.60055 3.11833 4.63712 6.15609 3.83625
		THE	NCDAL SOIL P	RESSURE, K/	SQ FT+ IS			
	1234567	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.16698	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.17019 3.20110	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.17287 3.20539 6.23666	5 0.0 0.0 0.17287 3.20777 6.24248 9.27425	6 0.0 0.17019 3.20539 6.24248 9.28056 12.31218	7 0.0 0.16698 3.20110 6.23666 9.27425 12.31218 15.34502
	TO	TAL SUM OF FOOT	ODTING EXTER TING WEIGHT = REACTIONS =	NAL LOADS = 6.750 67.097	60.000 P KIPS KIPS	(IPS ·		

FIGURE E7-4.2 Partial output for Example 7-4, including footing weight.

IIII

# 7-5 GENERAL COMMENTS ON MAT SOLUTIONS BY FINITE DIFFERENCES

From solving a large number of problems the author has found that:

- 1 The linear solution for soil pressure currently used as Eq. (7-1) is valid for footings; i.e., the soil pressures obtained by finite difference are linear and only slightly affected by footing thickness or soil modulus  $k_s$ .
- 2 The situation of large eccentricity as shown in Example 7-4 also displays a linear pressure distribution. Again the conventional solution is valid.
- 3 Conclusions 1 and 2 were obtained for an extremely wide range of footing

thickness. A typical case of a  $12 \times 12$  footing was varied from 12 to 60 in in thickness with little change in line of zero pressure.

- 4 Including the footing weight does not move the zero-pressure line much where footings are subjected to large eccentricities.
- 5 The computations appear to become unstable if an unstable load condition is imposed; i.e., if a load is put only on an edge or corner, the  $\sum F_v = 0$  may not be satisfied. Contrary to what one would expect, the footing weight does not seem to contribute to footing stability.
- 6 Column loads not at node points are prorated to the adjacent two or four nodes, using any reasonable method.

# 7-6 COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR MAT FOUNDATION BY FINITE DIFFERENCES

This program will solve any square or rectangular mat using a square (rh = h) or rectangular  $(rh \neq h)$  grid. A notched (or reentrant) corner can be solved by modifying the program to zero out the unwanted nodes and to allow reading in the nonzero coefficients of the affected nodes.

A subroutine is used (and included) for the inversion of the coefficient matrix. This subroutine is based on the product-inverse method of inverting a matrix. The product inverse operates on one column at a time of the coefficient matrix. The matrix is developed one row at a time, but it can be shown that the matrix generated in this computer program is of the form

$$AX = C$$

and that

$$A = A^T$$

which is most helpful in computer bookkeeping since the program develops a row of the A matrix at a time, whereas a column is operated upon in the inversion subroutine.<sup>1</sup>

This program will solve either fps or metric problems through use of appropriate entries and the correct unit data card.

Only if notches or holes are not present is the matrix always symmetrical. Using this product-inverse method when holes or notches are present may not always be possible.

```
Operation
Line
            1-6
                                   Bookkeeping
                                  COMMON statement and variables must be exactly in order shown
                                   READ TITLE, UNITS (two cards)
                  8
                                   READ (415)
                10
                                   N = number of rows (horizontal lines); M = number of columns (vertical lines);
                                   NQ = number of nonzero entries in P matrix; LIST = switch to write A matrix and
                                   certain other data
                                   READ (7F10.4)
                14
                                   H = vertical grid; RH = horizontal grid length; T = total mat thickness, all in feet
                                   or meters; E = modulus of elasticity; SM = subgrade modulus; UNITWT = unit
                                    weight of mat and XMU = Poisson's ratio
                                    Computation constants
        16-21
        26-51
                                    Builds P matrix
                                    READ I,J, P(I,J) coordinates of load and load
                 44
                                   Builds Y matrix one line or row at a time. Note PRINT (W,I,J) subroutine both sets up rows and also writes values if LIST > 0. MATZER initializes the row to zero Calls inversion subroutine PROINV; this gives the values of deflection [X(I)]
         54-84
      85-208
               209
                                    Sets deflections W(I,J) = X(I) and builds W1(I,J) matrix. W1 is used for soil reactions and pressures; W is used for moment computations. W1 will have zeros for zero or
   225-254
                                     negative values of W. If any negative or zero W values are found, they are counted and
                                     the program is recycled to statement 23 until previous count and current count are the same. CALL OUTPUT (W,5), CALL OUTPUT (W,7) is subroutine to write the
                                     deflection matrix from disk work areas 5 and 7
Computes bending moments in X and Y directions in slab
    255-285
                                         J E BOWLES -- MAT FOUNDATION BY FINITE DIFFERENCE -- SQ OR RECT UNITS = FPS OR METRIC: USE KIPS, KN; FT OR M; KCF OR KN/CU M, ETC DIMENSION M(15, 21), will select the select term of term of the select te
                                      Computes and writes nodal soil reactions and soil pressures
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K2 = (I-1)*M + J
W(I,J) = X(K2)
152 W1(I,J) = W(I,J)*FU1
354 ICOUN=0
D0 127 J = 1,M
D0 127 J = 1,M
IF(W1(I,J)*LE*00*)W1(I,J) = 0*
IF(W1(I,J)*LE*00*)W1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,J)*U1(I,
                                                                                        0260
0261
0262
  0271
  0272
0273
0274
    0292
0293
0294
```

```
SUBROUTINE PRINT(W,I,J)
DIMENSION w115,21),Y1320),X(320)
DOUBLE PRECISION w,Y,X
COMMON M,N,NN,K,X,LIST
IF(LIST.EQ.0)GO TO 31
IF(M.GT.6) GO TO 31
IF(M.GT.6) GO TO 31
IF(M.GT.6) GO TO 31
WRITE(9, 20)I,J((W(NI,M1),M1=1,M),N1=1,N)
20 FORMAT(IHO,Z16/12F10.51)
31 KK = (1-1)*M+J
KK = 0
00 30 I3 = 1,N
00 30 I3 = 1,N
KK = KKK+1
30 Y(KK) = W(IZ,I3)
WRITE(4) {Y(LL),LL= 1,K}
RETURN
END
                                                      SUBROUTINE PROINV(ASAT)
PRODUCT FORM——SOLUTION OF SYSTEM OF EQUATIONS.
THE SYSTEM AND INVERSE ARE STORED ON DISK.
THE COLUMNAISE LARGEST SCALED PIVOT IS USED AT EACH STEP.
DIMENSION IXR(320), IXK(320), H(320), B(320), ASAT(320), X(320)

DOUBLE PRECISION ASAT,X,H,B
COMMON M,N,N,K,X,LIST
TEST = 0.00001
N = K
N1 * N+1
SMLPIV = 999.9
REWIND 5
DO 2 !=1,N
IXR(!) = 0
IXK(!) = 0
IXK(!) = 0
IXK(!) = 0
O 2 X(!1) = 0.0
O 4 !=1,N
RED (4) (ASAT(!), I=1,N)
OO 4 !=1,N
SO 4 !=1,N
SO 1 = X(!) + ASAT(!)**2
REWIND 4
DO 5 !=1,N
S(!) = DSGRT(X(!))
CALL IN FIRST COLUMN OF THE ASAT MATRIX
READ (4) (ASAT(!), I=1,N)
DO 20 K=1,N
IXR(I) = 0.0
K[ = K+1
DO 9 !=1,N
IF(IXR(!).NE.0) GO TO 9
TPIV = 0ABS(IASAT!!)/X(!))
IF(IXR(!).NE.0) GO TO 9
TPIV = 0ABS(IASAT!!)/X(!))
IF(IYV.LE.BIGPIV) GO TO 9
BIGPIV=TPIV
BIGPIV=TPIV
IXE=[
SONTINUE]
IXR(!K) = K
0006
0007
0008
0009
0011
0011
0013
0014
0016
0017
0018
0019
```

## 7-7 MAT FOUNDATIONS BY FINITE ELEMENT

This section is based heavily on the direct element method of grid frameworks of Wang (1970). Considering Fig. 7-6, we shall subdivide the mat into a series of grid members with a torsional resistance as well as bending. Properties of the grid members will be determined by their dimensions, which in turn are determined by the member location within the grid. For example members 1 to 3 have widths one-half that of members 4, 8, 10, and 11.

Refer to Fig. 7-7, which illustrates a typical element P-X, F-e diagram. The A and S matrices (general case for diagonal as well as rectangular members) are

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -\sin\alpha & 0 & -\cos\alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -\sin\alpha & 0 & -\cos\alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & +\cos\alpha & 0 & -\sin\alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 3 & +\frac{1}{L} & +\frac{1}{L} & 0 & -1.0 & 0 \\ 4 & 0 & -\sin\alpha & +\cos\alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 5 & 0 & +\cos\alpha & +\sin\alpha & 0 & 0 \\ 6 & -\frac{1}{L} & -\frac{1}{L} & 0 & 0 & -1.0 \end{bmatrix}$$
(7-6)

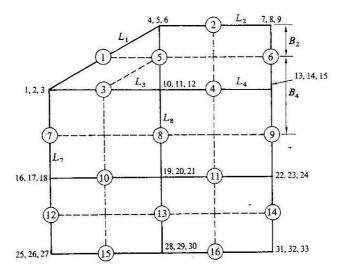


FIGURE 7-6 Plate or mat divided into a grid framework of dimensions shown. Use average length L for diagonal-member properties. All members are subjected both to bending and torsion, and each node is supported by a soil "spring." Nodes show the node coordinates (as 1, 2, 3) or P-X identification for  $ASA^T$  matrix.

and

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} F \setminus e & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 1 & \frac{4E1}{L} & \frac{2E1}{L} & & & \\ 2 & \frac{2E1}{L} & \frac{4E1}{L} & & & \\ 3 & & & \frac{GJ}{L} & & \\ 4 & & & & K \\ 5 & & & & K \end{bmatrix}$$
(7-7)

The soil spring is computed as  $k_s LB/4$  (the 4 is used because of the summation process involved at the joints in building the  $ASA^T$  matrix). Now the element  $SA^T$ and  $ASA^T$  matrices can be built. Next, by employing the proper counting devices via node coding similar to that shown in Fig. 7-6 one can superimpose the contributing element  $ASA^T$  values at any node to build the total  $ASA^T$  of the mat.

This method has two major disadvantages: (1) the matrix is of size  $NP \times NP$ ,

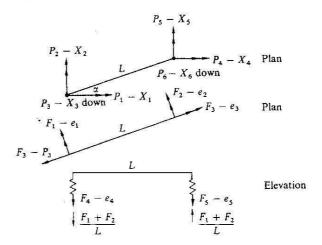


FIGURE 7-7 A typical element from the grid of Fig. 7-6. With the general element orientation shown, one can easily allow for bevels, corners, slots, etc.

which is three times as large as the finite-difference matrix for the same grid layout, and (2) for practical reasons it is best to read the member data of each member on separate data cards. Thus, a large number of data cards are required just for members. Two major advantages, however, are (1) that any foundation configuration may be used, including notches, holes, slots, bevels, etc., and (2) that both column axial loads and moments can be applied. Loads not on node points are prorated as in the finite-difference method.

Ribbed footings may be used in this method by reading appropriate values into the member data. (This feature is not in the included program.)

The included computer program computes the torsion rigidity J of the grid elements using Seely and Smith's (1952) values of  $\beta$  as a best fit over three regions. The largest of element thickness or width dimension is used as element width B to obtain

$$\frac{B}{T} \le 2 \qquad \beta = \frac{0.087B}{T} + 0.054$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The included computer program does not have the feature, however, the recently developed method of reducing a banded matrix (as the ASA<sup>T</sup> of most problems of the type in this text) can reduce storage and inversion time by a very large factor. Using the banded technique the author inverted a 192 × 192 matrix in less than 10 min where the product-inverse method required 1<sup>3</sup>/<sub>4</sub> hr. This method may be used for finite-difference problems also if the matrix is symmetrical.

$$\frac{B}{T} > 4.5 \qquad \beta = \frac{0.00218B}{T} + 0.2902$$

for  $J = \beta BT^3$ . For ribbed footings, the finite element segments may be tee-shaped, and an additional modification of J would be necessary.

EXAMPLE 7-5 Compare the solution of a footing with a corner notch cut out as shown in Fig. E7-5.1 with the finite-element solution. Show partial I/O for the finite-element solution. Given:

$$P = 500 \text{ kips}$$
 Footing =  $10 \times 10$   $D = 2 \text{ ft}$ 

$$E_c = 468,000 \text{ ksf}$$
  $k_s = 96 \text{ kcf}$ 

Required: soil pressure after notch is cut.

SOLUTION 1 By rigid method [Bowles (1968)] before the notch cut

$$q = \frac{500}{12^2} = 5 \text{ ksf}$$

Compute new properties of footing with notch  $(I_x, I_y, I_{xy})$ :

$$A' = 10^2 - 2(4) = 92 \text{ sq ft}$$

The center of the new area is

$$\overline{X} = \frac{-4(-8)}{92} = 0.348 \text{ ft}$$

$$\overline{Y} = \frac{3(-8)}{92} = -0.261 \text{ ft}$$

$$M_y$$
 (about Y' axis)  
=  $500(0.261) = +130.5$  ft-kips

$$M_x$$
 (about X' axis)  
= 500(0.348) = +174.0 ft-kips

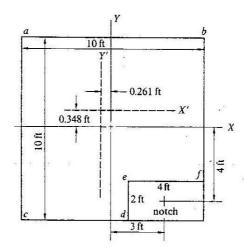


FIGURE E7-5.1 Notched footing.

Make a table to compute properties with respect to new axis through cga:

Part	A	<i>X</i> ,	Y	$AX^2$	$AY^2$	$I_{0X}$	$I_{or}$
Uncut Notch	100.0 -8.0	0.261 -4.348	-0.348 3.261	6.81 151.24	12.11 -85.072	833.33 -2.67	833.33 - 10.67
	92.0			-144.43	-72.96		

New axis:

$$I_X = I_{0X} + I_{0X, \text{ notch}} + \sum AY^2 = 833.33 - 2.67 - 72.96 = 757.70 \text{ ft}^4$$

New axis:

$$I_{\rm Y} = I_{\rm 0Y} + I_{\rm 0Y,\,notch} + \sum AX^2 = 833.33 - 10.67 - 144.43 = 678.23 \, {\rm ft}^4$$

Compute product of inertia with respect to new axis:

$$I_{XY} = I_{0XY}^* + \sum A\overline{X}\overline{Y}$$

$$= 0.00 + (-8)(4.348)(3.261) + 100(-0.261)(-0.348)$$

$$= 0.00 - 113.432 + 9.10 = -104.33 \text{ ft}^4$$

$$I_Y - \frac{I_{XY}^2}{I_X} = 678.23 - \frac{(104.33)^2}{757.70} = 678.23 - 14.37 = 663.86$$

$$I_X - \frac{I_{XY}^2}{I_Y} = 757.70 - \frac{(104.33)^2}{678.23} = 757.70 - 16.05 = 741.65$$

$$M_Y - M_X \frac{I_{XY}}{I_X} = 130.5 - \frac{174(-104.33)}{757.70} = 130.5 + 23.96 = 154.46$$

$$M_X - M_Y \frac{I_{XY}}{I_Y} = 174.0 - \frac{130.5(-104.33)}{678.23} = 174.00 + 20.07 = 194.07$$

Solving for soil pressure at selected points

$$q = \frac{500}{92} + \frac{154.46}{663.86} X + \frac{194.07}{741.65} Y$$
$$= 5.43 + 0.233X + 0.262Y$$

Point	X'	Υ'	P/A	0.233 <i>X</i> ′	0.262 Y'	q	qw/fig wi
a	-4.739	-4.652	5.43	1.10	1.22	3.11	3.30
b	+5.261	-4.652	5.43	+1.23	-1.22	5.44	5.77
C	-4.739	+5.348	5,43	-1.10	+1.40	5.73	6.07
d	+1.261	+5.348	5.43	+0.29	+1.40	7.12	7.55
e	+1.261	+3.348	5.43	+0.29	+0.88	6.60	7.00
<i>f</i>	+5,261	+3.348	5.43	+1.23	+0.88	7.54	7.99

<sup>\*</sup> Note  $I_{0XY}$  is with respect to the original XY axis before the notch was cut out.

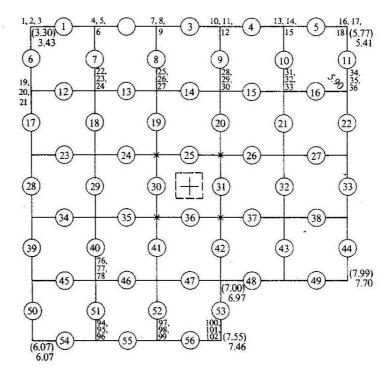


FIGURE E7-5.2

Partial coding of notched footing worked by hand in Example 7-5. Element numbers are shown in circles; soil pressures from the hand solution shown in parentheses, for example, (7.99); node coordinates as 1, 2, 3. Note that there are 56 members with a  $102 \times 102$  matrix.

SOLUTION 2 By finite-element solution (refer to Fig. E7-5.2 for coding) the partial data cards are:

Card	Dat	a	-							
1	TIT	LE						100		V-0.00
2	UN	ITS	(UI	1, U	JT3, 1	JT5,	UT6)			
2 3		56		Ó		•				
4	4680	000.	21	9600	. 100	. 2.0	0 0.		19	
4 5	1 :	1 2	3	4	5 6	2.00	0.00	1.0	Ю	
1										
60	56	97	98	99	100	101	102	2.0	0.	1.00
61	45	132	.5							
62	48	132	.5							
63	63	132	.5							
64	66	132	.5							

The partial output is shown in Figs. E7-5.3, E7-5.4, and E7-5.5.

		1704	
		INERTIA	
		Σ V	20000000000000000000000000000000000000
£2	K/CU FI	н	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
2 X 4 FI	100.00 K/CU	æ	
W/CORNER NOTCH	SCIL PCCULUS =	E	
2 FT W/CD	1198	>.	000000 000000 00 000000000000000000000
10 x	K/50 FT	r	
ELEMENT 10 X	219600.0 K/SQ	NP 6	
E IN	II 5	N P S	
ВУ	Ħ	NP4	<b>1111100000000000000000000000000000000</b>
7-5 M	SO FT	NP 3	111222882228828444884488888888888888888
BOWLES EXAM 7-5	0.0 K	NP 2	
BOWLE	468000.0 K/SQ	IdN	14-0w14-0w0000000000044-0w0-0
<u>п</u>	UNIT W	MERNO	りょうしょうしょうしょうしょうしょうちゃらくころろろろろろろうしょうしょうしょうしょうしょうしょうしょうしょうしょうしょうしょうしょうしょう

FIGURE E7-5.3 Input for Example 7-5. 132.5000 132.5000 *ᲐᲥᲘᲠᲥᲡᲔᲑᲡ ᲛᲜᲔപᲘᲠᲥᲡᲔᲑᲡᲔᲑᲘᲡᲐᲡᲡᲐ* 48 99 45

REACTIONS	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{\sqrt{$		20	
ELEMENT SOIL	THIND THE			
TORSION MOMENT	###	= 530,0000 KIPS		
MOMENTS		COL LOADS	2 7 2	imple /-5.
BENDING		SUM OF VERTICAL	E7-5.4	Bending moments for Example
MERND		THE	FIGURE	Dending 1

THE	DEFORMAT	NO1.	THE DEFORMATION MATRIX, FT OR RADEVERY 3RD	OR RAD	EVERY 3.	RD = 1	= DEFL								
_	0.00295	2	0.00231	w.	0.03430	4	0.00299	5	0.00224	9	0.03886	7	0,00304	<b>3</b>	0.00208
	0.04317	10	0.00307	11	0.00187	12	6.04712	13	0.00305	14	0.00173	15	0.05071	91	0.00303
, 11	0.00168	18	0.05411	61	0.00288	20	0.00235	. 21	0.04014	22	0.00295	23	0.00230	24	0.04481
	0.00303	26	0.00213	2.7	0.04926	28	0.00306	29	0.00187	30	0.05325	31	0.00302	32	0.00170
33	0.05679	34	0.00299	35	0.00166	36	0.06614	3.7	0.00273	38	0.00241	39	0.04574	0.4	0.00278
4.	0.00239	42	0.05056	43	0.00286	44	0.00220	4.5	0.05521	46	0.00290	14	0.00186	4.8	0.05927
64	0.00289	50	0.00166	15	0.06273	52	0.00288	53	0.00164	54	0.06601	55	0.00253	95	0.00244
57	0.05099	58	0.00254	59	0.00243	09	0.05587	61	0.00254	62	0.00225	63	0,06061	49	0.00261
9	0.00192	99	0.06479	19	0.00270	89	0,00168	69	0.06832	7.0	0.00274	7.1	0.00165	72	0.07164
7.3	0.00240	74	0.00243	75	0.05591	76	0.00238	11	0.00240	7.8	0.06075	61	0.00236	80	0,00227
18	0.06545	82	0.00244	83	0.00206	84	0.06979	85	0.00259	86	0.00176	18	0.07360	88	0.00266
89	0.00168	90	0.07703	16	0.00236	26	0.00241	66	0.06066	46	0.00234	56	0.00238	96	0.06546
16	0,00233	9.6	0.00228	66	0.07012 100	100	0.00235 101	101	0.00216 102	102	0.07457				à
THE	NODAL S	011	THE NODAL SOIL PRESSURE (	KIPS)	_										
1	3.43048	2	3.88592	æ	4.31743	4	4.71181	S	5.07127	9	5.41143	7	4.01394	œ	4.48080
ው	4.92607	10	5.32529	11	5.67939	. 21	6.01381	13	4.57430	14	5.05556	15	5.52083	16	5.92707
1.7	6.27301	18	6.69131	19	5.09915	20	5.58676	12	16090.9	22	6.47860	23	6.83249	54	7-16374
25	5.59125	56	6.07537	27	6.54502	28	6.97926	53	7.36050	30	7,70314	31	86590-9	32	6.54592
33	7.01243	34	7.45679									7			

FIGURE E7-5.5 Deformation matrix and nodal pressure.

## 7-8 COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR FINITE-ELEMENT METHOD

This program requires coding the mat as shown for the square-footing example used to compare the finite-element and finite-difference solutions (Fig. 7-9) and as the partial coding shown for the corner notched footing of Example 7-5 (Fig. E7-5.2). Since the  $ASA^T$  is built directly, a minimum of computer core is used; however, inversion using double precision will still limit the size of the matrix. The program included here writes the  $ASA^T$  on disk and calls an inversion subroutine (product inverse). Since the product-inverse subroutine is similar (except for a few variable identifications) to the finite-difference program subroutine, it is not included in the following listing. This program will solve metric problems by simply reading the input data in metric rather than fps units.

Line	Operation
1–4	Bookkeeping
5	READ TITLE, UNITS (note only UT1, UT3, UT5, and UT6 used)
7	READ
	NP = number of $P$ 's in $P$ matrix, also the size of $ASA^T$ to be inverted; NM = number of members; NZP = number of nonzero $P$ values to be read into the $P$ matrix; LIST > 0 lists additional data
11	READ
. 11	E = modulus of elasticity, ksf (kN/sq m); G = shear modulus, ksf (kN/sq m); SK = soil modulus; T = mat thickness; UNITWT = unit weight of mat
15-19	Zero ASA <sup>T</sup> matrix and put on disk for use in statements 81-92
27	READ member data one card per member. Card contains member number, NP numbers at each end of member [NPE(I), I = 1,6], the horizontal (H) and vertical (V) coordinates of the member and its width B. H, V, and B are in feet or meters. (Refer to the partial output of Example 7-5 which illustrates member input)
29	Puts member data on disk
32-46	Computes member properties, inertia, torsion inertia, length, and slope angle and writes data back for check
48-64	Zeros and builds element A matrix [EA(I,J)]
65-74	Zeros and builds element S matrix [ES(I,J)]
75-79	Zeros and builds element $SA^T$ matrix [ESAT(I,J)]
80	Tests counter; if $\Pi = 1$ , control is transferred to statement 605 to compute element forces. If $\Pi = 0$ , we continue to statement 203 to build structure $ASA^T$
81~92	Builds structure $ASA^T$ based on each member's contribution and puts on disk
93	GO TO 94 to read next member data, make computations, etc.
94	Test
	IF: $II = 0$ , continue; $II > 0$ , GO TO 605
110-120	Zeros and builds $P$ matrix, makes it column $NP + 1$ , and puts on disk for inversion subroutine
112	READ nonzero P values
120	Calls inversion subroutine (CALL PROINV)
124	Sets $II = 1$ (remember it is a test above)
125	Rewinds disk to first member data
127	Tests if member data are all read (statement 605)
128–133	Computes and writes member forces using the element $SA^T$ , which is recomputed, and the $X$ matrix from the inversion subroutine
143-145	Computes nodal soil pressure
146-152	Punches soil-deformation matrix onto cards

```
ECCENTRICALLY LOADED FOOTINGS, NOTCHED FOOTINGS, AND MATS

B = MEH WODTH, I = MEM THICKS; M, Y = MOR AND VERT 015T FOR LENGTH PROGRAM COMPUTED, AND 150T-EAR 11, Y = MOR AND VERT 015T FOR LENGTH PROGRAM COMPUTED, AND 150T-EAR 11, Y = MOR AND VERT 015T FOR LENGTH PROGRAM COMPUTED, AND 150T-EAR 11, Y = MOR AND VERT 015T FOR LENGTH PROGRAM COMPUTED, AND 150T-EAR 11, Y = MOR AND VERT 015T FOR LENGTH PROGRAM COMPUTED, AND 150T-EAR 11, Y = MOR AND VERT 015T FOR LENGTH PROGRAM COMPUTED, AND 150T-EAR 11, Y = MOR AND VERT 015T FOR LENGTH PROGRAM COMPUTED, AND 150T-EAR 11, Y = MOR AND VERT 150T-EAR 11, Y = MOR
    0001
0015
0016
0017
0018
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DO 78 J = 1,6
    NSZ = NPE[J] *
    NSZ = NPE[J] *
    SASIINSZ] = ASATINSZ] + EASAT[I,J]
    205 MRITE[10*INSL) (ASAT[MM], MM=1,NP]
    CEND OF ASAT MATRIX FORMATION
    301 [FULIST.LE.D]GO TO 401
    MRITE[3,803]
    SASI FORMAT[11, ///10X, 'THE ASAT MATRIX')
    [FULIST.LE.D]GO TO 401
    MRITE[3,803]
    SASI FORMAT[11, ///10X, 'THE ASAT MATRIX')
    [1] [1] [2] [1]
    DO 825 J]= NP
    READ[10*JJ] (ASAT[MM], MM=1,NP)
    [READ[1] (ASAT[MM], MM=1,NP)
    [RE
       0090
0091
0092
0093
  0199
0101
0102
0103
0104
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01120
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  0122
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### COMPARISON OF FINITE-DIFFERENCE AND FINITE-ELEMENT SOLUTIONS

There are no published measured values to compare with the analytical results. Teng (1949) reported on some deflections, but no dimensions or loads were given and all deflections were presented graphically. No reported mat failures have occurred, probably because mats are generally very conservatively designed (by the rigid method). At this time not many people are familiar with the techniques cited herein. and because of the programming difficulty probably have not been enthusiastic about taking this task on when the rigid solution works.

The author makes a few comparisons in the following paragraphs to determine at least if the solutions are reasonable. First, Fig. 7-8 illustrates a comparison between the beam on an elastic foundation (Chap. 5) as solved by the matrix solution and by treating the "beams" as mats using the finite-difference solution. Also shown are the short direction moments in the vicinity of the columns so that the reader can estimate what an effective short-side width for principal bending should be.

The finite-element solution was not used, as the matrices are three times as big, and alternative means are used to decide on its merits. Figure 7-8 illustrates about 22 percent difference between the finite-difference solution and beam on an elastic foundation. Most of this can be accounted for by the fact the beam solution uses full "springs" at the ends, whereas the finite-difference solution uses half "springs." The author found in the Vesić test data that increasing the end "springs" on the beam lowers the bending moments about 17 percent (see Table 5-1 for channel with two end loads). It should be noted, therefore, that in line with this reasoning the mat solution should yield moments larger than the beam on an elastic foundation with fullvalue end "springs," which Fig. 7-8 displays.

Next consider the finite-difference and finite-element solutions. Figure 7-9 is a  $10 \times 10 \times 2$  ft mat with a 500-kip center load. Finite-element coding is shown. The grid size is the same for both methods ( $2 \times 2$  ft). In both methods the load (including 30 kips for footing weight) is prorated to the four adjacent nodes at 132.5 kips to each node as shown. Figure 7-10 shows a typical node (node 8) with positivetorsion (right-hand rule) directions for any element. From a computer output (similar to Fig. E7-5.3 and not included in the text) the moments shown on the figure were obtained.

If torsion is opposite to the positive direction shown, it is written with a minus sign. One can now compute the design moments in each direction at the nodes, as shown in Fig. 7-10. To make a valid comparison, as in Fig. 7-11, the moments are divided by the element width. Figure 7-11 shows a comparison of both moments and soil pressures. From symmetry only one quadrant is used. Large discrepancies exist in moments ranging from 10 to nearly 100 percent. Note, however, that very little

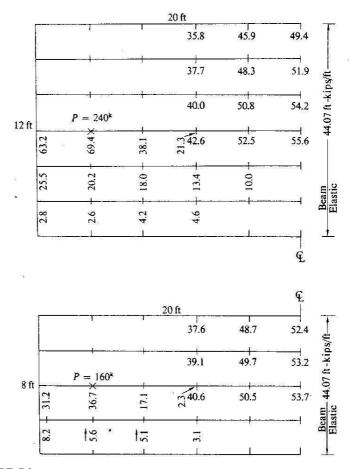
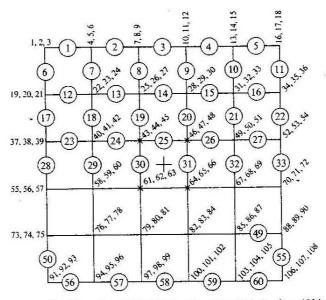


FIGURE 7-8 Comparison of the beam on an elastic foundation and the same beam as a mat. The grid used for the finite-difference solution is  $2 \times 2$  ft. In both cases the mat solution is about 22 percent greater than the beam solution. The beam solution is the same even though both beams are not the same width because the column loads increase in direct proportion to the beam size. Short-direction moments in the vicinity of the column are shown and longitudinal moments for nodes 4 to 6. All moments are per foot of width or length.

discrepancy exists in soil pressure (and hence in computed deflections). These discrepancies are of the same order of magnitude as found by the author in comparing the finite-difference solution herein to a slightly different finite-element solution proposed by Lucas (1970), for which the program of Sec. 7-8 can be adapted with only slight modification.



G = 219600.0 ksf;E = 468000.0 ksf; $T=2 \mathrm{ft}$ ,

FIGURE 7-9 Grid and coding used in the finite-element program to compare the finiteelement solution with the finite-difference solution. Computer input used P values for NP = 45, 48, 63, and 66 with coding given above. Column load = 530 kips, including 30 kips for footing weight.

If we analyze the bending moment using the ACI 318-71 method which allows computation of moment at the column face and assume that a 500-kip column load requires a 2 × 2 ft column (referring to Fig. 7-11 again),

$$q = \frac{500}{10} = 5.0 \text{ ksf}$$

$$M \text{ per foot} = \frac{5.0}{2} (4)^2 = 40.0 \text{ ft-kips/ft} \ll \begin{cases} 51.5 \text{ finite difference (max value)} \\ 55.0 \text{ finite element (max value)} \end{cases}$$

Now if we find the average moment at the column face across the 10-ft width of footing, the finite-difference solution gives 4(51.49 + 34.14) + 2(28.56) = $399.64 \approx 40.0$  ft-kips/ft. The finite-element solution gives 45.9 ft-kips/ft.

It appears that the finite-difference solution is somewhat more correct (or at least reasonable) than the finite-element solution for bending. This may be because the torsion effects are forced into making an artificially large contribution to the solution due to the method of forming the mathematical model. It also indicates

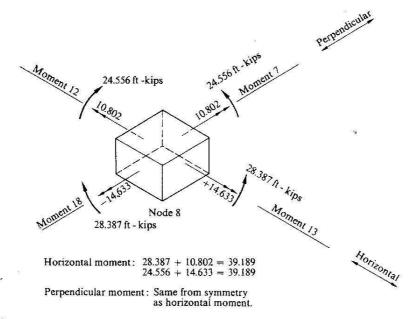
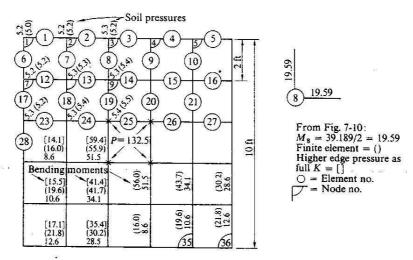


FIGURE 7-10 Computing the nodal bending moments for design using the computer output.



### FIGURE 7-11

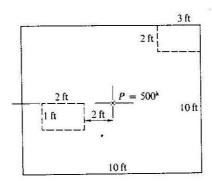
Comparison of the finite-element and finite-difference solutions. Footing is  $10 \times 10$  ft square with 500-kip center load. P value of 132.5 kips is for finite-element solution to include footing weight. Note that the moments are symmetrical, as are the soil pressures. Moment values are per foot of width, not necessarily the computer-output value.

that the ACI 318-71 method is on the verge of being unsafe, especially using strength design since the maximum is considerably larger than the average moment.

Either solution provides good (and reasonable) soil pressures; hence, the finiteelement method can be used for footings with holes and notches to obtain the soil pressures, since this method is easier to input to the computer.

#### **PROBLEMS**

- 7-1 Verify the finite-difference expression [Eq. (7-5)] for the inside corner.
- 7-2 Derive the finite-difference expression for an inside corner one node from another corner.
- 7-3 Repeat Example 7-4 for the load concentrically located and study the effect of grid spacing on the computed bending moments.



- 7-4 Refer to the figure above.
- (a) Find the soil pressure of the footing uncut.
- (b) Find the soil pressure if a corner is cut as shown.
- (c) Find the soil pressure if a 1 × 2 ft hole is sawed out as shown.

What conclusions can you draw?

- 7-5 Apply a moment of  $M_x = 100$  ft-kips to the figure in addition to the axial load.
- (a) Find the soil pressure and plot the soil-pressure diagram.
- (b) Find the soil pressure if a  $1 \times 2$  ft hole is sawed out as in part (c) of Prob. 7-4.
- 7-6 Referring to Fig. 7-8, is the zone a + 3d proposed by the author in Chap. 3 reasonable? If not, what do you recommend?
- 7-7 Repeat Prob. 7-4 using metric units.
- 7-8 Repeat Example 7-3 if the load is at node (4,6); at (5,5).

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## RETAINING WALLS

#### 8-1 INTRODUCTION

A retaining wall is used to stabilize any material where conditions are such that the mass cannot be allowed to form a natural slope. Commonly retaining walls are used to hold earth slopes to a vertical or near vertical face, but they may also be used to contain ore, grain, coal, or even water.

Typical retaining walls are shown in Fig. 8-1. The gravity wall (Fig. 8-1a) depends upon self weight for stability. Cantilever walls (Fig. 8-1b, c, and d) achieve most of their stability by utilizing the weight of soil on the heel portion of the base slab. The bridge abutment of Fig. 8-2 is a special type of retaining wall, not only containing the approach fill but serving as a support for part of the bridge superstructure.

Retaining walls are commonly supported by the soil (or rock) underlying the base slab but are also supported on piles; this is especially true of bridge abutments. Pile supports are also used where water may erode or undercut the base soil, typically in waterfront structures.

This chapter will be primarily concerned with the simple cantilever retaining wall of Fig. 8-1b. The design of a counterfort wall, which is somewhat more complicated (Fig. 8-1c), will be considered in Sec. 8-9. Terms used to describe parts (or location) of the cantilever retaining wall are shown in Fig. 8-1b.

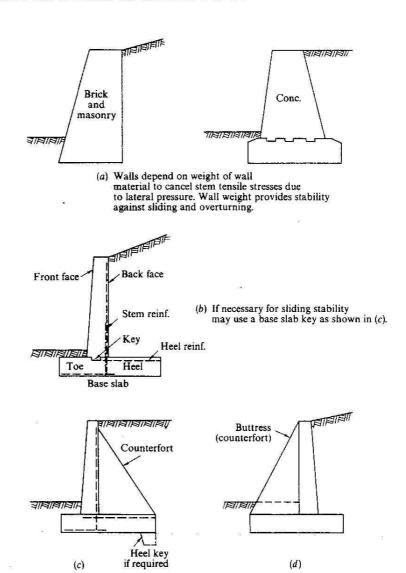


FIGURE 8-1
Types of retaining wall: (a) gravity; (b) cantilever; (c) counterfort; (d) buttressed.

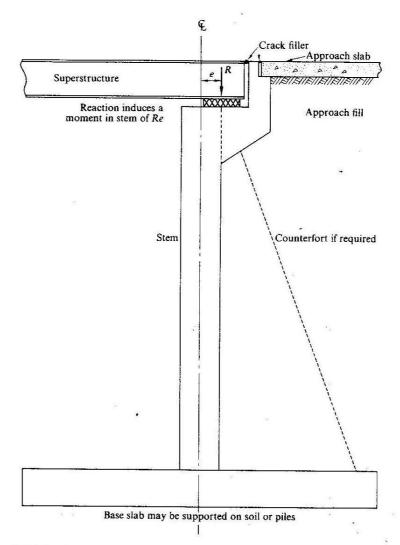


FIGURE 8-2 Bridge abutment as retaining wall.

## 8-2 EARTH PRESSURE ON RETAINING WALLS

The backfill exerts pressure against the back face of the wall, as shown in Fig. 8-3. The stem acts as a cantilever beam, and if it is of modest proportions, it will deflect slightly to achieve an *active* earth-pressure state of soil pressure against the wall.

The earth pressure can be evaluated (Fig. 8-4) by the Coulomb earth-pressure theory<sup>1</sup> (about 1773) or the Rankine method. The Coulomb method assumes that:

- 1 The soil is isotropic, homogenous, and with internal friction and cohesion, that is,  $s = c + \sigma_n \tan \phi$ .
- 2 The rupture surface is a plane surface (although Coulomb suspected that it was probably curved).
- 3 The failure surface is a rigid body.
- 4 There is wall friction.
- 5 The failure surface for active pressure is at an angle  $\rho = 45 + \phi/2$  to the horizontal for horizontal backfills, the angle being independent of the soil cohesion.

Additionally Coulomb stressed the importance of drainage of the backfill. He correctly stated the critical height of a vertical bank of earth and emphasized the importance of soil tests. The Rankine<sup>2</sup> theory is a later theory (about 1857), which assumes an ideal soil with no cohesion (because in time weathering often destroys or markedly reduces the cohesion) and no wall friction.

Both the Coulomb and Rankine theories are invalid if the wall in any way interferes with the slip planes which must form if the retained soil mass is to reach a state of plastic equilibrium (Fig. 8-4a). This situation is often ignored in practice, however, with apparently little adverse effect.

The case of incipient slip, a cohesionless soil, and active earth pressure is shown in Fig. 8-5. At incipient slip the idealized failure wedge ABC has the body forces shown.  $P_a$  is the active-earth-pressure resultant of the wall to just hold the wedge in position. The weight vector W can be computed; the R vector on the idealized failure plane  $\overline{AC}$  is the resultant of the normal force N and the friction resistance on the plane.

Combining  $P_a$ , R, and W we obtain the force polygon of Fig. 8-5b. Now it is evident that we could try many failure surfaces at various  $\rho$  angles and take the maximum value of  $P_a$ ; or for the conditions of Fig. 8-5a (planar backfill and no cohesion) we may take the derivative

$$\frac{dP_a}{d\rho} = 0$$

<sup>2</sup> G. Cook discusses Rankine in ibid., vol. 2, no. 4, 1950-1951.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> H. Golder provides a discussion of the Coulomb earth-pressure theory in *Geotech*. (Lond.), vol. 1, pp. 66-71, 1948.

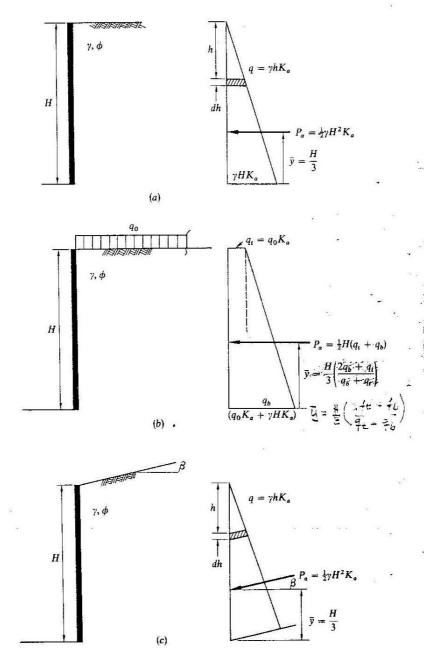
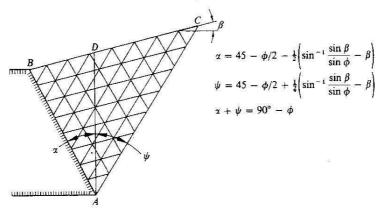
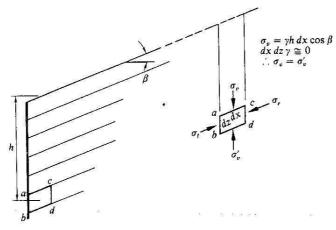


FIGURE 8-3 Wall pressures using Rankine theory: (a) cohesionless soil, and horizontal backfill; (b) when surcharge is present; (c) when backfill slopes.

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(a) Conditions in soil in back of retaining wall to obtain the Rankine or Coulomb pressure. If wall interferes with failure surface AB, theory is invalidated.



(b) Stress conditions to determine direction of stresses and resultant force against retaining wall when backfill slopes and wall friction is 0.

FIGURE 8-4 Stresses in retained soil mass.

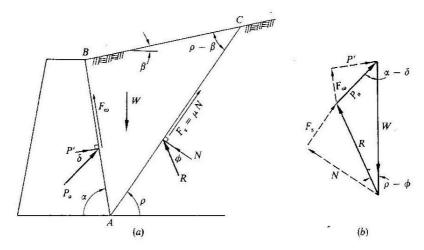


FIGURE 8-5
(a) Idealized failure wedge behind a retaining wall and (b) the resultant force polygon.

to find the maximum value of  $P_a$  to be

$$P_{a} = \frac{\gamma H^{2}}{2} \frac{\sin^{2}(\alpha + \phi)}{\sin^{2}\alpha \sin(\alpha - \delta) \left[1 + \sqrt{\frac{\sin(\phi + \delta)\sin(\phi - \beta)}{\sin(\alpha - \delta)\sin(\alpha + \beta)}}\right]}$$
(8-1)

The Rankine solution assumes a vertical wall and no wall friction. Removing these terms from Eq. (8-1) and simplifying, we obtain

$$P_a = \frac{\gamma H^2}{2} \left( \cos \beta \frac{\cos \beta - \sqrt{\cos^2 \beta - \cos^2 \phi}}{\cos \beta + \sqrt{\cos^2 \beta - \cos^2 \phi}} \right) \tag{8-2}$$

We may also write for either Eq. (8-1) or (8-2)1

$$P_a = \frac{\gamma H^2}{2} K_a$$

where  $K_a$  is the trigonometric remainder of either equation, depending on the theory being used. Tables 8-1 and 8-2 give typical values of  $K_a$  for both theories. More complete tables are available [Bowles (1968)], or the user may program the equations on the computer. Values are shown as zero for  $\beta > \phi$  since the theory is based on equations which were derived for a cohesionless soil. Natural slopes formed with cohesionless soils of  $\beta > \phi$  are already in a nearly unstable condition.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> One obtains the passive pressure by using  $[1 - \sqrt{\cdots}]$  in Eq. (8-1) and reversing signs top and bottom in Eq. (8-2).

For cohesive soils,<sup>1</sup> Coulomb worked the case of horizontal backfill (see Fig. 8-6) and no wall friction to obtain an equation which can be transformed for the active-pressure soil state to

$$P_a = \frac{1}{2} \gamma H^2 \tan^2 \left( 45 - \frac{\phi}{2} \right) - 2cH \tan \left( 45 - \frac{\phi}{2} \right)$$
 (8-3)

By extrapolation one can obtain the passive-pressure soil state as

$$P_p = \frac{1}{2}\gamma H^2 \tan^2\left(45 + \frac{\phi}{2}\right) + 2cH \tan\left(45 + \frac{\phi}{2}\right)$$
 (8-4)

It is known, of course, that earth slopes will stand at some angle, the approximate

Table 8-1 COULOMB ACTIVE-EARTH-PRESSURE COEFFICIENTS FOR SELECTED VALUES OF  $\beta$  AND  $\phi$ , AND  $\alpha$  = 90°

$\delta \setminus \phi =$	28°	30°	32°	34°	36°	38°	40°
(4)				$\beta = 0^{\circ}$			
0°	0.361	0.333	0.307	0.283	0.260	0.238	0.217
5°	0.345	0.319	0.294	0.271	0.250	0.229	0.210
10°	0.333	0.308	0.285	0.263	0.243	0.223	0.204
15°	0.325	0.301	0.279	0.258	0.238	0.219	0.201
20°	0.320	0.297	0.276	0.255	0.235	0.217	0.199
25°	0.319	0.296	0.274	0.254	0.235	0.217	0.199
200 30 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10			3/02	$\beta = 10^{\circ}$	**		
0°	0.407	0.374	0.343	0.314	0.286	0.261	0.238
5°	0.391	0.359	0.330	0.302	0.277	0.252	0.230
10°	0.380	0.350	0.321	0.294	0.270	0.246	0.225
15°	0.373	0,343	0.315	0.289	0.265	0.243	0.221
20°	0.370	0.340	0.313	0.287	0.263	0.241	0.220
25°	0.369	0.340	0.313	0.287	0.264	0.241	0.221
.c		es Cushingeri Coscie		$\beta = 20^{\circ}$			
0°	0.488	0.441	0.399	0.361	0.327	0.295	0,267
5°	0.474	0.428	0.387	0.350	0.317	0.287	0.259
10° *	0.465	0.420	0.379	0.343	0.311	0.281	0.254
15°	0.461	0.415	0.375	0.339	0.307	0.278	0.251
20°	0.460	0.414	0.374	0.338	0.306	0.277	0.250
25°	0.464	0.417	0.376	0.340	0.308	0.278	0,252

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> One may also obtain Eqs. (8-3) and (8-4) from a Mohr's circle construction using  $\sigma_3=q_h$  of Eq. (8-6) and integrating for the total pressure against the wall, as Eq. (8-7).

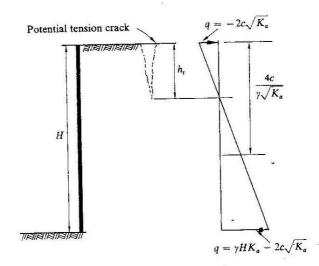


FIGURE 8-6 Retaining wall with cohesive soil.

limiting angle being the angle of internal friction for cohesionless soils and 90° for cohesive slopes of low heights.

Since neither Coulomb or Rankine considered the case of sloping backfill with cohesive soil, the value of earth-pressure coefficient to use when both cohesion and angle of internal friction are present is uncertain. One may use trial wedges [Bowles (1968)] as one solution. One may also use the earth-pressure coefficients including the slope angle and be approximately correct. The user should be aware, however, of this limitation. This problem is not expected to arise often since good practice calls for backfilling a zone like Fig. 8-7 with granular material whenever possible to provide drainage and control the lateral earth pressure.

Table 8-2 RANKINE ACTIVE-EARTH-PRESSURE COEFFICIENTS

		_			268	38°	40°
β \ φ =  0° 5° 10° 15° 20° 25° 30°	28°	30°	32°	34°	36°	36	40
	0.361	0.333	0.307	0.283	0,260	0.238	0.217
		0.337	0.311	0.286	0.262	0.240	0.217
	0.366		0.321	0.294	0.270	0.246	0.225
	0.380	0.350	0.341	0.311	0.283	0.258	0.235
	0.409	0.373		0.338	0.306	0.277	0.250
	0.460	0.414	0.374		0.343	0.307	0.275
25°	0.573	0.494	0.434	0.385	150000000000000000000000000000000000000	0.358	0.315
30°	0.000	0.866	0.574	0.478	0.411		12.000 TV
35°	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.597	0.468	1.391

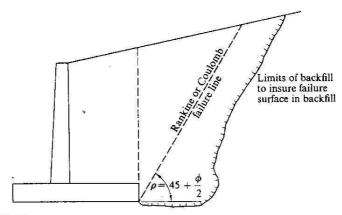


FIGURE 8-7 Backfill zone to achieve Rankine or Coulomb pressure conditions. Decrease  $\rho$  by at least  $\beta$  when  $\beta > 0$ .

## 8-3 TENSION CRACK, FORCE ON A WALL, AND DIRECTION OF WALL FORCE

The height of stability of an unsupported earth cut would be obtained approximately (SF = 1) by setting  $P_a = 0$  in Eq. (8-3), giving

$$H = \frac{4c}{\gamma \tan (45 - \phi/2)}$$
 (8-5)

Further inspection of Eq. (8-3) indicates that (refer to Fig. 8-6) if the lateral pressure is written as

$$q_h = \gamma h K_a - 2c\sqrt{K_a} \tag{8-6}$$

the wall pressure is

$$dP_a = q dh$$

and integrating over H

$$P_a = \int_0^H (\gamma h K_a - 2c\sqrt{K_a}) dh \tag{8-7}$$

we obtain

$$P_a = \frac{1}{2}\gamma H^2 K_a - 2cH\sqrt{K_a} \tag{8-7a}$$

as before.

This computation shows that the wall pressure is triangular and further that a negative pressure is exerted on the wall, varying from a value of  $-2c\sqrt{K_a}$  at h=0 to a value of zero at a height of

$$h_t = \frac{2c}{\gamma \sqrt{K_a}} \tag{8-8}$$

This height represents a "tension" zone in the soil mass, and as soil may not carry tension stresses, a crack may form, visible at the ground surface, for this depth.

Since the basic derivation was for cohesionless soils and we are extrapolating, the value of  $\sqrt{K_a}$  in Eq. (8-8) should be taken as

$$\sqrt{K_a} = \tan\left(45 - \frac{\phi}{2}\right)$$

to obtain a conservative tension-crack depth.

If a surcharge exists, as in Fig. 8-4b, for a cohesionless soil

$$q_h = (q + \gamma h) K_a$$

This gives an intensity of pressure at h = 0 of

$$q_h = qK_a$$

with a resulting trapezoidal pressure diagram.

A triangular pressure diagram will locate the resultant  $P_a$  at the one-third height of wall above the base. The resultant pressure is not located at H/3 in either Fig. 8-3b or 8-6, but it can be determined by statics. For a trapezoidal pressure diagram (cohesionless soil with surcharge) the resultant is at

$$\bar{y} = \frac{H}{3} \frac{2q_b + q_t}{q_b + q_t} \tag{8-9}$$

Figure 8-4b illustrates the concept, which inclines the resultant  $P_a$  at the angle  $\beta$  for the Rankine solution. Referring to the figure and recalling from the Rankine theory that the wall friction is zero, we see that the soil element abcd has no friction on face  $\overline{ab}$ . The element is assumed 1 unit perpendicular to the plane of the paper. The vertical stress on plane  $\overline{ac}$  and  $\overline{bd}$  (if we assume  $\gamma$  dz  $dx \approx 0$ ) is

$$\sigma_n = \gamma h \, dx \cos \beta$$

Since the vertical stresses are in equilibrium, it follows that the stresses on the vertical plane  $\overline{ab}$  and  $\overline{cd}$  must be equal and collinear; this condition is satisfied if they are parallel to the ground surface (and to stress planes  $\overline{ac}$ ,  $\overline{bd}$ ).

### 8-4 DESIGN OF CANTILEVER RETAINING WALLS

Cantilever retaining walls require consideration of two earth-pressure values, as shown in Fig. 8-8. The stem may shear, as in Fig. 8-8a, or the system may slide, as in Fig. 8-8b.

Figure 8-9 illustrates typical proportions of cantilever retaining walls. The values shown may be used as tentative proportions with final dimensions to satisfy structural stability.

Figure 8-10 illustrates the critical sections for design of the various parts of a cantilever retaining wall. The three parts (stem, toe, and heel) are designed to satisfy shear and moment at the sections shown.

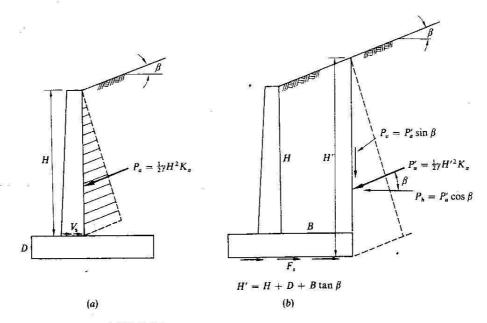


FIGURE 8-8
Pressure conditions against a cantilever retaining wall: (a) stem pressure;
(b) sliding stability.

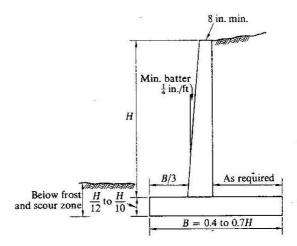


FIGURE 8-9
Trial wall proportions. Final proportions must satisfy structural and wall stability.

#### Stem Design

Considering the parts in detail and the stem first, it is evident that shear at the top is zero (or some small value with a surcharge present) and increasing to a maximum at the juncture with the base slab. The proposal that the shear section be taken at d from the base slab is, in the author's opinion, unrealistic. Taking the shear as shown is conservative. Another point to consider is that the stem is invariably poured separately from the base slab; thus, designing the stem for a thickness (as usual in most textbooks) to satisfy wide-beam shear (see Chap. 3) of

$$v_c = 2\phi \sqrt{f_c'}$$

is also somewhat unrealistic when the shear resistance at the joint will actually be developed based on the *friction* resistance of the weight of the stem on sections  $\overline{ab}$  and  $\overline{cd}$  plus the concrete *shear* resistance along  $\overline{bc}$  plus the shear resistance of the stem tension (and shrinkage) steel (Fig. 8-10a). Why does the current design procedure work? If we take the coefficient of friction of concrete as  $\mu = 0.5$  (rough surface), the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Two points should be made here concerning the American Association of State Highway Officials (AASHO) (1969, sec. 1.2.19) design requirements: (1) the product of  $\gamma K_a \leq 30$  pcf; (2) if highway traffic is present at the top of the wall within a distance of H/2, a surcharge of  $2\gamma$  shall be used in computing the lateral earth pressure.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See also Commentary on Building Code Requirements for Reinforced Concrete, ACI 318-71, art. 11.2.2.

#### Base-Slab Design

The base slab constitutes two cantilever parts with the stem as the fixed end (Fig. 8-10). The toe should be checked for adequate shear resistance without shear reinforcement at the stem face (not a distance of d out) as a conservative design. Steel is provided for moment resistance. The weight of the base slab should be included in this computation since it is included in the soil pressure. The soil overlying the toe should be neglected.

The heel is analyzed similarly for shear at the stem face using

$$V = \int_{0}^{\text{heel}} q_{\text{net}} \, dx$$

and for moment at the center of the tension steel in the stem [heel distance plus approximately  $3\frac{1}{2}$  in (9 cm)]. For shear resistance the depth is to satisfy

$$v_c = 2\phi\sqrt{f_c'}$$

The AREA specifications require checking for loss of heel pressure. The AASHO specifications (1969, sec. 1.4-8B) state: "The rear projection or heel of base slabs shall be designed to support the entire weight of the superimposed materials, unless a more exact method is used."

The author has provided some interpretation of this latter mode of failure (in computer program) by:

- I Applying 0.67R/B as a rectangular toe pressure and simultaneously evaluating the full loss of heel pressure without using a load factor.
- 2 Rechecking both toe and heel for these two new shear conditions. The base slab is increased in thickness if the computed concrete shear stress is

$$v_{\rm computed} > 3.1 \phi \sqrt{f_c'}$$

The stress is obtained by considering that if  $2\phi$  corresponds to the situation of using a LF = 1.55 (average with live and dead load), then without a load factor the stress may be increased as  $2 \times 1.55 = 3.1$ . This increased allowable stress will be about the same as applying ACI eq. (11-4).

3 Rechecking both toe and heel moments and if the new moments (without load factors) exceed the originally computed moments at either location using load factors, the steel area is selected based on the loss of heel-pressure design conditions (and without the load factor).

These alternative conditions are included, but it should be realized that this mode of failure is highly unlikely. It is difficult to conceive of a situation where loss of heel pressure could occur without the stem or toe breaking away. For these reasons the author has used what amounts to very low safety factors for this failure mode.

## 8-5 COMPUTER-DESIGNED CANTILEVER RETAINING WALL

EXAMPLE 8-1 The computer printout includes sketches so that the reader can follow the design steps. The computer design is exactly as outlined in the preceding section.

SOLUTION Data-card input is as follows:

Card	Data
1	TITLE (see Fig. E8-1.1)
2	FT IN KIPS FT-K K/SQ FT K/CU FT LB/SQ IN SQ IN
	Note two additional entries on this card (start entry in column 1, 11, 21,, 61)
3	12. 144. 030. 2.00 3.5 1000. 4000. 87000.
4	1000001 200150 .50 .144 3.0
	Cards 3 and 4 represent FU1 through FU15 (8F10.4) in order. These cards include metric
	and ACI Code values to work program in either fps or metric units by changing entries on
	cards 2, 3, and 4
5	H G1 G2 $\beta$ $\phi$ 1 $\phi$ 2 KPP
	20112 .120 5.0 34. 32. 1.
	Note with KPP > 0. passive (Rankine) earth pressure is computed
	FIC FY TOE HEEL DC D COH
6	3500. 60000. 3.25 7.50 1.917 4.00 .800
J	FAC SURCHG HLOSS TOP
7	1.50 .500 0. 10.
•	Using a load factor of 1.5 and specifying a top thickness of 10 in. No loss of heel pressure
	is considered
1000	10 CONDITIONS

These seven data cards represent the input. The output is shown in Fig. E8-1.1 and the final design sketch in Fig. E8-1.2.

To complete the stem design (Fig. E8-1.1) in the first 5 ft above the base slab (4 + 1) ft extension, approx. ACI, art. 12.1.4) use as follows:

two no. 8 bars and one no. 9 bar  $(A_s = 2.58 > 2.52)$ 

Terminate no. 9 bar 5 ft from base. Anchor stem steel by running d into the base slab and 90° bend. In the next 5 ft of wall use

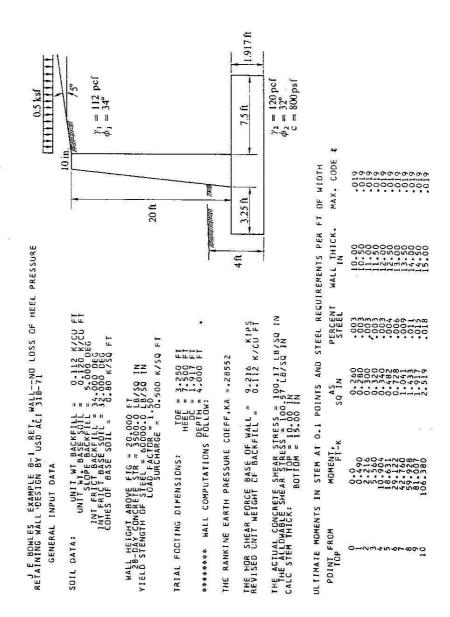
two no. 8 bars and terminate one no. 8 bar

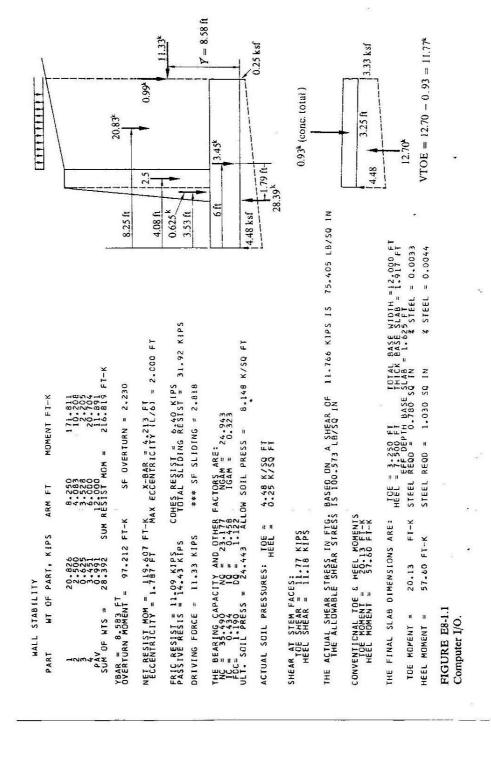
For remainder of wall use one no. 8 bar per foot  $(A_s = 0.79 > 0.26)$ . Shrinkage and temperature requirements perpendicular to plane of paper are as follows. Base slab:

0.002(1.9)(12) = 0.456 sq in

Use two no. 5 bars/ft. Wall (same throughout):

0.002(1.25)(12) = 0.30





Use two no. 4 bars/ft. Shear dowels (front face):

$$0.50P_a = 0.5(9.2) = 4.6 \text{ kips}$$

Since this is the actual and not ultimate shearing force, use  $f_v = 0.4F_y$ .

$$A_s = \frac{4.60}{0.4(60)} = 0.192 \text{ sq in/ft}$$

Use two no. 4 bars at 6 in center to center

$$A_s = 0.40 \text{ sq in} > 0.192$$

Cut one bar at 5 ft; run one bar full height to position alternate shrinkage steel bars inside front face. From computer printout

Heel steel = 1.03 sq in/ft use two no. 9 bars ( $A_s = 2.00$ )

Toe steel = 0.780 sq in/ft use two no. 6 bars ( $A_s = 0.88$ ) ////

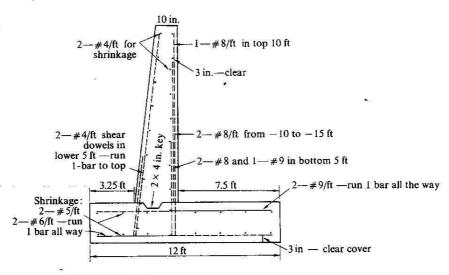


FIGURE E8-1.2 Final-design sketch (not to scale).

EXAMPLE 8-2 Establish dimensions and steel requirements for the retaining wall shown on Fig. E8-2.1. Use metric units.

SOLUTION Data-card input is as follows:

Card	Data
1	TITLE
2	M CM KN KN-M KN/SQ M KN/CU M KG/SQ CM SQ CM Note units on "units" card
3	100. 1000. 4.713 .530 9.0 70.3 281. 6117
4	101,968 .009807 14.06 23.564 .150 98.07 7.5  These two cards are the metric equivalents of FU1-FU15 used in Example 8-1  H G1 G2 β φ1 φ2 KPP
5	6.7 17.6 18.9 10. 32. 28. 0.  No passive resistance considered in sliding SF  F1C FY TOE HEEL DC D COH
6	211. 42199 2.65 .61 1.20 38.30 Note f' and f, in kg/sq cm (3000 and 60000 psi) FAC SURCHG HLOSS TOP
7	1.5 24.0 0.0 20. Note load factor and top width of 20 cm (8 in)

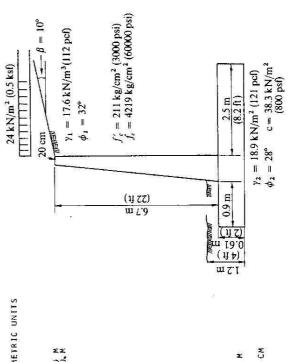
These seven cards represent the input. The output is shown in Figs. E8-2.1 and E8-2.2 with a final sketch. In this example the overturning SF was not adequate for the trial dimensions given, and the program incremented the heel 0.15 m (0.5 ft) to satisfy overturning.

#### Comments:

- I Final overturning SF = 2.287 (not rounded).
- 2 Final sliding SF = 1.328 and may (a) require additional consideration of a heel key, (b) tacitly assume some passive resistance, or (c) increase the base width
- 3 All forces, moments, and steel requirements are for a 1-m (unit) width.
- 4 Note that the percentage steel required in most of the stem and toe is for  $14.06/f_y$  (or  $200/f_y$ ), which is conservative. The 14.06 is FU11.

# 8-6 COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR RETAINING-WALL DESIGN

This program uses the ACI 318-71 concrete code and strength design. The designer must specify the load factor (FAC) to use. The author recommends 1.5; however, the designer may wish to use 1.2, 1.4, or even 2.0, depending on the amount of uncertainty of loads. The program will consider passive wall pressure if the designer specifies (KPP > 0) after consideration of probability of loss of toe soil. The program considers the AREA (and AASHO) loss of heel pressure using the method outlined by the author in Sec. 8-4 if the designer specifies this alternative check (HLOSS > 0.).



J E BOWLES EXAMPLE 8-2 RETAINING WALL USING METRIC UNITS RETAINING WALL DESIGN BY USD ACT 318-71 GENERAL INPUT CATA

B TE TIND SOIL DATA:

WALL HEIGHT ABOVE FIG = 6.700 M
28 DAY CONCRETE SIR = 211.0 KG/SG CM
YIELD STENGTH OF SIEEL 4219.0 KG/SG CM
LOAD FACTOR = 1500 KN/SG M

TRIAL FOOTING DIMENSIONS: TOE = 0.900 M
HEEL = 2.650 M
DC = 0.610 M
\*\*\*\*\*\*\*\* MALL COMPUTATIONS FOLLOW:

THE HOR SHEAR FORCE BASE OF WALL = 175.696 KN/CU M REVISEO UNIT WEIGHT OF BACKFILL = 17.600 KN/CU M THE RANKINE EARTH PRESSURE COEFF, KA #.32097

THE ACTUAL CONCRETE SHEAR STRESS = 6.54 KG/SQ CM
THE ALLOWABLE SHEAR STRESS = 6.54 KG/SQ CM
CALC STEM THICK: BCTIOM = 51.00 CM

M OF WIDTH		00000000000							
MENTS PER	WALL HICK.	www.4444444 		W-NX	4	C.677 M	291.27 KN 2	S KN/SO M	
STEEL	STEEL	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	MOMENT KN-M	1058.401 10.958 10.958 118.468 162.685	TURN = 2.144	1.368 M 1TY (L/6) =	ST = 103,72 KN IDING RESIST = SLIDING = 1,282	13.131 0.305 SS = 244.495	Σ3
0.1 POINTS AND	SQ CM	0000111100000 0000111100000 0000000000	R. R.	1.225 0.993 2.030 4.060 ESIST MOM =	SF DVERTURN	AX ECCENTRICITY (L/6)	COHES RESIST = 103.72 TOTAL SLIDING RESI	FACTORS ARE NGAM = IGAM = OW SOIL PRE	270-47 KN/50
IN STEM AT	*OMENT.	6 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	RT, KN A	386.984 58415 11.052 40.070 554.879 SUM R	± 663.283 KN-M	758.807 KN-M 0.662 M	6 KN 1.0 KN 17.25 KN	Y AND OTHER 10 = 14.720 0.441 10 = 1.124 133.484 ALL	= 10E
ULTIMATE MOMENTS	POINT FRCM	01084691800	WALL STABILITY PART WT OF PA	23 44 PAV SUM OF WTS	YBAR = 2.919 M OVERTURN MOMENT	NET RESIST MOM = CCENTRICITY = (	FRIC RESIST = 187.5 PASSIVE RESIS = 0 DRIVING FORCE = 22	THE BEARING CAPACITY NC = 25.803 1C = 0.400 1C = 0.400 10 = 0.175 ULT. SOIL PRESS = 7	ACTUAL SOIL PRESSURES

FIGURE E8-2.1 Input and partial output for Example 8-2.

WALL UNSTABLE--HEEL INCREASED 0.15 M #

```
WALL STABILITY
                                                               MOMENT KN-M
                                                                                                     37 cm
                                                                                      min. for
YBAR = 2.928 M
OVERTURN MOMENT = 669.295 KN-M
                                                      SF OVERTURN = 2.287 shrinkage
NET RESIST MOM = 861.128 KN-M X-BAR = 1.485 M
ECCENTRICITY = 0.620 M MAX ECCENTRICITY (1/6) = 0.702 M
FRIC RESIST =195.99 KN
PASSIVE RESIS = 0.0 KN
                                            COHES RESIST = 107.55 KN
TOTAL SLIDING RESIST = 303.54 KN
DRIVING FORCE = 228.60 KN
                                                 *** SF SLIDING = 1.328
ÎČ = 0.420 IC = 0.460 IGAM = 0.324

FDC= 1.162 DQ = 1.115

ULT. SOIL PRESS = 773.054 ALLOW SOIL PRESS = 257.685 KN/SQ M
                                                                                                              50.1 \text{ cm}^2/\text{m}
ACTUAL SOIL PRESSURES: TOE = 259.40 KN/SQ M
                                                                                                                  30.9 cm<sup>2</sup>/m
                                                                                 17,3 cm<sup>2</sup>/m
WALL UNSTABLE -- HEEL INCREASED 0.15 M ***
       WALL STABILITY
                                                                                                    4.21 m
   PART
            WT OF PART, KN
                                                               MOMENT KN-M
                                                                                           Final design sketch
                                                                                                 (no scale)
YBAR = 2.937 M
OVERTURN MOMENT = 675.344 KN-M
                                                     SF OVERTURN = 2.432
NET RESIST MOM = 967-396 KN-M X-BAR = 1.599 M
ECCENTRICITY = 0.581 M MAX ECCENTRICITY (L/6) = C.727 M
FRIC RESIST = 204.45 KN
PASSIVE RESIS = 0.0 KN
                                            COHES RESIST =111.38 KN
TOTAL SLIDING RESIST = 315.83 KN
ORIVING FORCE = 229.95 KN
                                                *** SF SLIDING = 1.373
THE BEARING CAPACITY AND OTHER FACTORS ARE:

NC = 25.803 NQ = 14.720 NGAM = 13.131

IC = 0.439 IQ = 0.477 IGAM = 0.343

FDC= 1.150 DQ = 1.107

ULT. SOIL PRESS = 811.091 ALLOW SOIL PRESS = 270.364 KN/SQ M
ACTUAL SOIL PRESSURES: TOE = 249.57 KN/SO M
SHEAR AT STEM FACES:
TOE SHEAR = 191.08 KN
HEEL SHEAR = 171.07 KN
THE ACTUAL SHEAR STRESS IN FTG. BASED ON A SHEAR OF 191.083 KN IS 5.620 KG/SQ CM THE ALLOWABLE SHEAR STRESS IS 6.544 KG/SQ CM
CONVENTIONAL TOE & HEEL MOMENTS
TOE MOMENT = 80.08 KN-M
HEEL MOMENT = 376.43 KN-M
THE FINAL SLAB DIMENSIONS ARE:
                                               TOE = 0.900 M TOTAL BASE WIDTH = 4.360 M HEEL = 2.950 M THICK BASE SLAB = 0.610 M EFF DEPTH BASE SLAB = 0.520 M STEEL REQD = 17.329 SQ CM $ STEEL = 0.0033
HEEL MOMENT = 376.43 KN-M
                                                STEEL REQD = 31.388 SQ CM
                                                                                                % STEEL = 0.0060
```

Remainder of Example 8-2 output and final-design sketch.

A surcharge (SURCHG) on the backfill can be included and soil properties of the backfill different from the base soil. The surcharge is treated as a horizontal projection and must be adjusted if it is known in terms of ground cover. If this is not done, the weight of soil on the heel may not be computed correctly for large  $\beta$  angles. Backfill must not be a cohesive material.

The program computes the stem pressure and finds the minimum stem-base thickness for shear plus 3.5 in (or 9 cm) to allow up to no. 8 rebars and 3 in (7.5 cm) of concrete cover. The top-of-stem thickness is specified by the designer in integer values of, say, 10 in (25 cm), etc. (TOP).

The program computes shear, moments, and steel requirements at the 0.1 points along the stem so that the designer may select cutoff points. The designer must select the rebar sizes and bars to satisfy the 50 percent of  $P_a$  indicated in Sec. 8-3.

Next the program computes overturning stability. If the initial base-slab proportions are inadequate to place the resultant in the middle third of base, the heel is increased by 5.0 ft (0.15 m) and the overturning stability repeated up to 3 times; then the toe is increased 0.5 ft (0.15 m). This is repeated until the resultant base pressure is in the middle third of base. The resulting SF is computed. Note that the soil weight over the heel part of the base is placed at heel/2 from the back face of the wall, which results in a small error on the conservative side when  $\beta > 0$ . The surcharge is treated as the horizontal projection of uniform load.

The sliding SF is investigated and will include passive pressure if the designer specifies. The friction-resistance computation utilizes  $0.67\phi$  and 0.67c for a condition of concrete to soil. The designer must inspect the computed SFs in the output to see if they are adequate. If the SF is inadequate, the designer must provide a base key to improve the sliding SF or increase the heel and reprogram the problem. Similar adjustments will have to be made if the overturning SF is too low since the computer only checks to ensure a resultant within the middle third of the base.

The allowable bearing pressure is computed next, using Eq. (2-27) and factors from Table 2-7.

The actual soil pressure is computed and compared, and the base slab is increased in increments of 0.5 ft (0.15 m) and recycled to the overturning-stability section of the program as many times as necessary to obtain satisfactory bearing pressure.

The base-slab shears and moments are computed. Shear is computed at the stem faces for the toe and heel, and the maximum value is used for design. Depth is made adequate for the largest (critical) shear value found by increasing the base-slab depth in increments of 3 in (7.5 cm) and recycling to the overturning-stability section of the program until the critical shear stresses are satisfied. Once the depth for shear is satisfied, the area of steel for bending is computed. The designer must select the rebars and bar spacing.

If an AREA (or AASHO) design is being made, the programmer requires the program to activate the loss-of-heel-pressure subroutine (HLOSS > 0.). Here the program computes the alternate shear and moment values as described earlier. If these unfactored values are larger, they are used in the design. This may require increasing the footing depth again in increments of 3 in (7.5 cm). Those values used are printed, the critical moments are divided by the LF prior to printing so a ready comparison of critical design moments can be made.

The output identifies all computations so that the designer can check the design at any step. This program will work either metric or fps units but requires three extra data cards containing UNITS, FU1 through FU15.

```
Operation
Line
            READ TITLE, UNITS
            READ FU1-FU15 (see data entries in Examples 8-1 and 8-2)
    6-7
            READ (6F10.4.15)
            H = wall height*; G1 = \nu backfill soil; G2 = \nu base soil; BETA = backfill slope
            angle; PHI1 = backfill \phi; PHI2 = base soil \phi; KPP = activates passive pressure if
            KPP > 0
    10
            READ (2F10.4)
            F1C, FY = concrete and steel stresses (psi or kg/sq cm); TOE = trial toe distance;
            HEEL = trial heel distance; DC = thickness of base slab; D = depth of base slab;
            COH = cohesion of base soil
     11
            READ (3F10.4)
            FAC = load factor USD; SURCHG = surcharge; HLOSS = check of loss of heel
            pressure if >0; TOP = minimum top thickness (inches or centimeters)
            Computes stem thickness and checks shear stress
  43-52
  65-79
            Computes stem moments and required steel area
 80-117
            Computes overturning stability
132-142
            Computes sliding stability
145-169
            Computes allowable capacity and actual soil pressure
171-195
            Computes toe and heel shears and moments and designs base-slab thickness
            Computes alternate (AREA) stresses based on loss of heel pressure
197-215
216-227
            Computes required area of steel for toe and heel moments
```

\* Units not given are feet or meters, kips or kilonewtons, and combinations of these units.

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19. HEEL =', F7.2.1X.A7.//'
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## 8-7 OTHER DESIGN CONSIDERATIONS

### Drainage

The backfill should be drained by placing weep holes at periodic intervals, say, 20 to 30 ft (6 to 10 m) along the wall. These should be protected against plugging by placing a graded filter in the zone. Some concern has been expressed that discharging water onto the toe is poor practice as it will wet the underlying soil. It is difficult to conceive of this as a problem, however, since drainage will generally occur after the base soil is pretty wet.

### Ice Thrust

Poorly drained backfill may freeze in the winter. Confined ice thrusts on the order of 1 to 9 ksf [Laba (1970)] have been measured in the laboratory. Certainly thrusts against a retaining wall may be larger than the design active earth pressure but probably not nearly as large as the laboratory values since the retaining wall should deflect under the pressure, thus relieving the stress. Generally, ice would tend to give excessive displacements rather than failure because the wall is somewhat flexible.

### **Joints**

Expansion joints should be provided at intervals of not more than 90 ft (28 m). Contraction joints should be provided at intervals not more than 30 ft (9 m).

#### Backfill

Backfill quality and density should be specified and job-controlled. Density should be on the order of 90 percent upward of standard compaction procedures (85 percent upward of relative density). The fill should be placed in lifts of not over 4 in for hand (mechanical) tamping and not over 8 in for regular compaction equipment.

Water flooding should not be used for compacting granular material (sand) due to a possible long-term adverse effect on the base soil.

Backfill which is cohesive (roadway abutments) will require both density and moisture control since it has been established [see Bowles (1970), chap. 9] that soils compacted at very low or very high water contents possess lower shear strength than those compacted near optimum. This is especially true if the compacted soil later becomes saturated, a highly likely event in locations such as this.

Frozen soil should not be used since it will not compact well; frozen lumps may not break up, and when they thaw, they are likely to become mud.

Large vibrating equipment used to compact granular backfill should be kept at least 5 to 10 ft from the wall to avoid large wall deflections during backfilling. This safety zone can be compacted with small mechanical hand tamping machines.

# & 1THER CAUSES OF RETAINING-WALL INSTABILITY

restricted earlier, if a retaining wall is located where scour or undercutting is a reconstruction, this must be taken into account. Scour may be 3 or more times the rise in water level.

The AASHO specification [(1969), sec. 1-4.6A] specifies that all footings of the (action) including retaining walls and abutments shall be at least 4 ft below the shall be defined that this depth is to be increased if site conditions warrant.

Another instability to consider (Fig. 8-11) is where the retaining wall supports a reflect large fill and a stratum of soil underlying the base is saturated and cohesive.

The beight of the fill will induce consolidation, which in turn will cause the heel to move the work ward. The overall effect is to rotate the retaining wall into the fill. If the reflect wall is a bridge abutment, this rotation could displace the bridge seat out from which is superstructure with a sudden discontinuity in the roadway. This self-tent type failure should be investigated, as well as the possibility that the system of wall and retained earth will fail in a slope-stability failure mode.

# 8.9 COUNTERFORT RETAINING WALLS

A le Counterfort wall shown in Fig. 8-12a is similar in design to the cantilever retaining wall. Total wall pressures for overturning and sliding stability and the toe portion are identities in design to the cantilever retaining wall. The same safety factors for sliding and to the cantilever retaining wall.

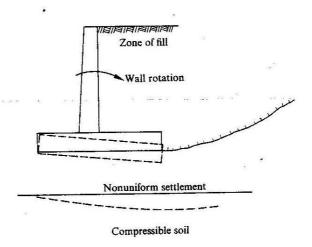


FIGURE 8-11
Deep-seated failure due to differential settlement or excessive shear stresses.

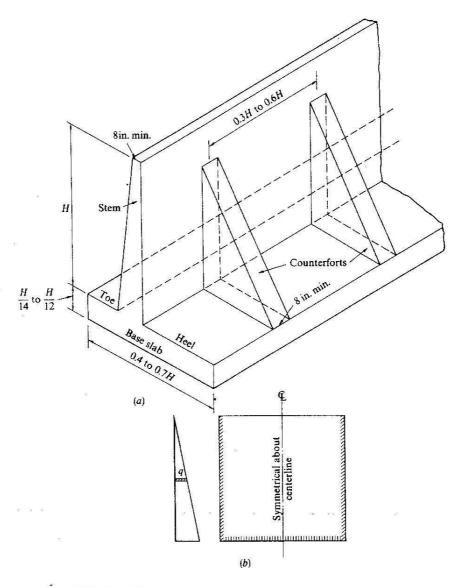


FIGURE 8-12 Counterfort wall: (a) trial dimensions; (b) stem as plate fixed on three edges and pressure distribution as shown. If counterforts do not extend to wall, top adjustments must be made.

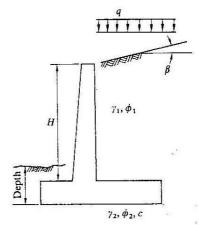
The stem and heel slab differ in design and, strictly speaking, are plates fixed or partly fixed on three edges (Fig. 8-12b), depending on the geometry of the counterfort, i.e., whether it spans the entire heel slab or is full wall height. The stem as a plate fixed on three edges must resist a hydrostatic (triangular) pressure. The base slab contains the soil overlying it as a downward pressure and resists the upward footing pressure to give a linear but nonuniform net design pressure.

Approximate procedures are available [Bowles (1968), Huntington (1957)], as well as tables computed using finite differences [Bowles (1968)] to treat the stem in a more theoretical fashion.

Since counterfort walls are rarely used, the design will not be considered here. The reader should consult the given references should the need arise.

### **PROBLEMS**

8-1 Refer to the figure and do the problems assigned, including or excluding passive pressure as instructed. Use the computer output, select the rebars, and sketch the final design. Use  $f'_c$  and  $f_y$  as assigned. You must estimate initial base-slab dimensions.



Problem	H	71	γ <sub>2</sub>	$\phi_1$ , deg	$\phi_2$ , deg	Depth
(a)	12 ft	110 pcf	112 pcf	32	34	3 ft
(b)	14 ft	110	112	32	34	3 ft
(c)	4.9 m	17.3 kN	17.5 kN	32	34	0.9 m
(d)	18 ft	110	112	32	34	4 ft
(e)	6.1 m	17.3	17.5	32	34	1.2 m
(f)	22 ft	115	112	32	34	4 ft
(g)	7.3 m	18.9	17.5	32	34	1.2 m
(h)	26 ft	120	112	32	34	5 ft
(i)	8.5 m	18.9	17.5	32	34	1.5 m
(i)	30 ft	120	112	32	34	5 ft

#### 8-2 Repeat the assigned part of Prob. 8-1 if

$\phi_2$ , deg	c, psf
20	1,200
30	600
30	400
10	1,500
Ô	4,000

- 8-3 Repeat the assigned part of Prob. 8-1 if  $\beta = 5$ , 10, and 15°.
- 8-4 Repeat the assigned part of Prob. 8-2 if  $\beta = 5$ , 10, and 15°.
- 8-5 Repeat the assigned part of Prob. 8-1 if the surcharge pressure is 0.6, 1.0, 1.5, and 2.0 ksf.
- 8-6 Repeat the assigned part of Prob. 8-1 if the surcharge is 28.7, 48, 72, and 96 kN/sq m.

#### REFERENCES

- AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF STATE HIGHWAY OFFICIALS (1969): Standard Specifications for Highway Bridges, 10th ed., Washington.
- AMERICAN RAILWAY ENGINEERING ASSOCIATION (1958): Manual of Recommended Practice, Chicago.
- HUNTINGTON, W. C. (1957): "Earth Pressures and Retaining Walls," chaps. 2 and 6, Wiley, New York.
- LABA, J. T. (1970): Lateral Thrust in Frozen Granular Soils Caused by Temperature Change, Highw. Res. Rec. 304, pp. 27-37.
- PECK, R. B., H. O. IRELAND, and C. Y. TENG (1948): A Study of Retaining Wall Failures, Proc. 2d Int. Conf. Soil Mech. Found. Eng., Rotterdam, vol. 3, pp. 296-299.

### LATERAL PILES

## 9-1 LATERAL-PILE CONCEPTS

Early engineers did not design vertical piles to carry lateral loads. Batter piles were provided for this purpose. In fact the Culmann graphical solution [Terzaghi (1943)] widely used up through the early 1950s as a means of analyzing pile groups carrying both vertical and horizontal loads could be used only if batter piles were included to carry the horizontal loads.

The need of a rational method of analysis and design of piles subject to lateral loads has been a matter of concern for some time. Among the earliest large-scale tests are those of Feagin (1937). These tests provided data for the design of the low-sill dam for which they were undertaken. The test data were reasonably adequate since the dam over a period of some 25 years shifted laterally (downstream) only some 1 to 3 in. The shift was probably due to an accumulation of effects such as erosion, vibration, creep, etc., and possibly some of the survey markers may have shifted.

Later Hrennikoff (1950) proposed an analysis of pile groups using the lateral capacity of the pile as a parameter. In the early 1950s others [Palmer and Thompson (1948), Texas A and M (1952), Mason and Bishop (1955), Palmer and Brown (1955),

Howe (1955), Reese and Matlock (1956), Mason (1957), Matlock and Reese (1960)] measured and/or used the finite-difference method of analyzing the lateral pile. Reese and Matlock provided curves as aids since it appeared many people were wary of this analytical method. Bowles (1968) included the finite-difference method along with a computer program in a textbook.

In spite of certain advantages of the finite-difference method over many analysis procedures, some writers preferred alternative methods of analysis [Broms (1964a, 1964b, 1965), with extensive bibliography].

The author [Bowles (1972)] has developed a method (Sec. 9-2) which has the advantage of including almost any lateral-pile loading scheme and accounting for any type of soil (if the user can describe it), holes, changes in pile section, etc. Since this method is more adaptable to the problem than any other method now available, it is the only method presented in this chapter.

## 9-2 THE LATERAL PILE BY MATRIX (OR FINITE-ELEMENT) METHODS

This procedure uses the procedure used in Chap. 5 for the beam on an elastic foundation but rotated 90°. Refer to Fig. 9-1 and again recall the three fundamental equations presented in Chap. 5,

$$P = AF$$

$$e = A^{T}X$$

$$F = Se$$

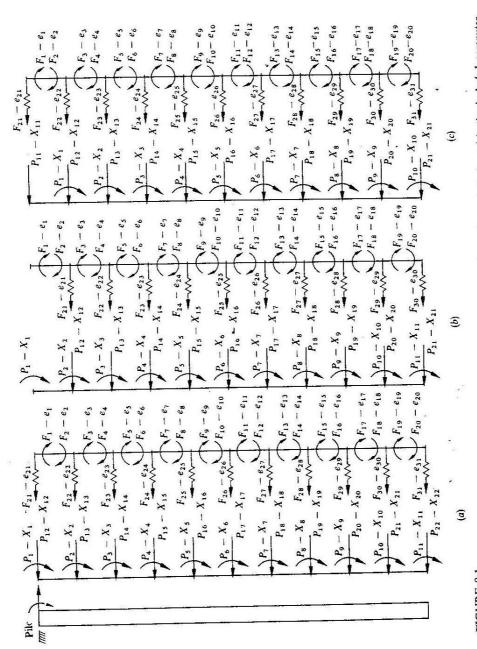
from which by substitution we have

$$P = ASA^{T}X$$
 and  $X = ASA^{T-1}P$ 

We are ready to proceed with the method.

Figure 9-2 displays the problem of Example 9-1 to illustrate the solution of a lateral pile using this method. No really new or different concepts are introduced from Chap. 5.

The matrix solution here requires inversion of a matrix of size  $NP \times NP$ , which is twice as large for the same number of nodes as the finite-difference solution. This is offset by ease of programming the loads, nonlinearity of the soil or changes in soil properties, partial embedment, changes in pile-section properties, etc. Also, at most 20 divisions (segments) are required for a solution, thus permitting the use of short segments [since the pile length over 50 ft can generally be neglected (see Sec.



Coding for various conditions of pile-head fixity: (a) free-head condition (rotation and translation) used in the included computer program; (b) rotation without translation; (c) translation without rotation.

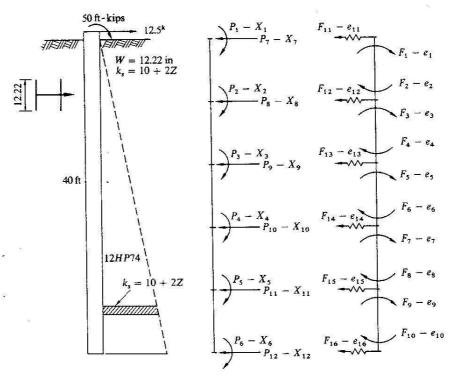


FIGURE 9-2 Coding of pile using five segments (Example 9-1) and soil modulus (kcf) varying with depth as shown.

9-4)]; 10 divisions results in NP = 22, and 20 divisions gives NP = 42, which is well within the capacity of all but the smallest computers.

## 9-3 EXAMPLES

Three examples will be used to illustrate the finite-element method of lateral-pile analysis. One example will use five segments to illustrate all the matrices. The same problem will be reworked using ten segments. A third example will illustrate both a metric solution and the method of obtaining pile-head response curves used later in Chap. 13.

EXAMPLE 9-1 Determine the lateral response of a 12HP74 loaded with a lateral force of -12.5 kips (the minus sign indicates that the direction is opposite the basic coding of Fig. 9-1); a moment of +50 ft-kips is also applied as shown in Fig. 9-2. From steel property tables the pile width is 12.22 in and has I = 566.5 in<sup>4</sup>. The soil modulus is assumed proportional to depth as  $k_s = 10 + 2.0Z$ . The pile is 40 ft long. The load is applied at the ground surface.

Five pile segments have been used so that the required matrices can be illustrated in a minimum of space.

SOLUTION It will be necessary to convert the pile width and I to foot units.

$$B = 12.22 \text{ in} = 1.0181 \text{ ft}$$
  $I = 566.5 \text{ in}^4 = 0.02731964 \text{ ft}^4$   
 $E_s = 30,000 \text{ ksi} = 4,320,000 \text{ ksf}$ 

Computer input is as follows:

Card	Data
1	TITLE
2 3	UNITS (UT1 – UT6 and $FU1 = 12$ .)
3	5 0 1 1 2 1 1
4	40. 1.0181 0.00 4320000, 2,00
5	10. 2. 1.
6	.02731964
7	1 50.
8	7 -12.50

These cards represent the input data. The output follows in Figs. E9-1.1 and E9-1.2. Check the computer output:

$$F(1) = 49.999$$
 from output sheet (50.00 ft-kips given)  
 $-F(2) = F(3) (-110.19 \text{ versus } +110.189)$   
 $F(10) = 0.00$ 

From Fig. E9-1.3

$$\sum M_2 = ?$$
  
 $50 + 8(12.5) - 8(4.9762) - F(2) = ?$   
 $F(2) = 50 + 100 - 39.84 = 110.16 (110.18)$ 

## 296 ANALYTICAL AND COMPUTER METHODS IN FOUNDATION ENGINEERING

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J E BOWLES EXAMPLE 9-1 (12BP74) W/5 DIV. FREE-HEAC
```

\*\*\*\*\* LATERALLY LOACED PILE BY FINITE ELEMENT METHOD

PILE LENGTH = 40.00 FT
PILE WIDTH (IF SQ) = 1.0181 FT
PILE WIDTH (IF SQ) = 4320000. K/SQ FT
NO OF NODES REQUIRING CORRECT = 0
NOCE SOIL STARTS = 1
NO OF LOAD CONDITIONS = 1

SUBGRADE MODULUS = 10.00 + 2.00\*Z\*\*1.000

MAX LINEAR SOIL DEFORM, XMAX = 2.00 IN
THE MCMENT OF INERTIA OF THE PILE = 0.0273196 FT\*\*4

PILE SEGMENT LENGTHS = 8.000 FT

## THE STATICS MATRIX IS

ROW	1	1-0000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
ROW	2	C.0	1.0000	1.0000	0.0	0.0	C-C	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
ROH	3	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0000	1.0000	0.0	0.0	0.C	0.0	0.0
ROW	4	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0 1.0cco	1.0000	0.0	0.0	0.0
ROW		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0-0	0.0	0.0	1.0000	1.0000	0.0
ROW	6	0.0	0.0	ŏ.ŏ	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0000
ROW	7	-1.0000	0.1250	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
ROW		-0.1250	-0.1250 -1.0000	0.1250	0.1250	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
ROW		0.0	0.0	-0.1250 -1.0000	-0.1250	0.1250	0-1250 C.C	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
ROW		0.0	0.0	0.0	-1.0000	-0.1250	+0.1250	0.1250	0.1250	0.0	0.0
ROW		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-1.0000	0.0	-0.1250	-0.1250	0.1250	0.1250
ROW !	12	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0 -1.0000	0.0	0.0	-0.1250	-0.1250

THE SOIL MODULUS AT NODE
1 10.00000
2 25.99998
3 42.00000
4 58.00000
5 73.99997
6 89.99997

THE P-MATRIX IS AS FOLLOWS THE NON-LINEAR SOIL FORCES, G(II), ARE

1 50.0000 0.00 2 0.0 0.00 4 0.0 0.00 6 0.0 0.00 7 -12.5000 0.00 8 0.0 0.00 10 0.00 0.00

FIGURE E9-1,1

Input data, statics matrix, nodal soil-modulus values, and P matrix.

	THE S-MATRIX IN TWO COLUMNS 1	÷ ED		
1234567890112	59.010 29.505 0.0 0.0 29.505 118.021 29.505 0.0 0.0 29.505 118.021 29.505 0.0 0.0 29.505 118.021 0.0 0.0 0.0 29.505 118.021 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 29.505 11.064 1.064 0.0 0.0 11.064 0.00 11.064 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 11.064 0.00 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 11.064 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 29.505 0.0 118.025 29.505 29.505 39.510 0.0 0.0 11.064 0.0 11.064 -11.064	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 2.797 -2.766 -2.766 5.744 -	0.0 0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0
	THE P-MATRIX (KIPS OR FT-K) IS	THE JOINT DEFL	ECTIONS IN) ARE	THE BEND. MOMENTS (KIPS OR FT-K) ARE
	LOAD DIR. 1 50.CCCO LOAD DIR. 2 0.0 LOAD DIR. 3 0.0 LOAD DIR. 4 0.0 LOAD DIR. 5 0.6 LOAD DIR. 5 0.6 LOAD DIR. 7 -12.3COO LOAD DIR. 8 0.0 LOAD DIR. 9 0.0 LOAD DIR. 10 0.0 LOAD DIR. 11 0.0 LOAD DIR. 11 0.0	JOINT DIR. 1 JOINT DIR. 3 JOINT DIR. 3 JOINT DIR. 5 JOINT DIR. 5 JOINT DIR. 7 JOINT DIR. 7 JOINT DIR. 10 JOINT DIR. 10 JOINT DIR. 11 JOINT DIR. 12	0.051923 0.00035185 -0.00035185 -0.0005800 -1.912576 -0.624153 0.0577219	MOMENT 1 49,999 MOMENT 2 110.189 MOMENT 3 110.189 MOMENT 5 74.092 MOMENT 6 23.362 MOMENT 7 23.362 MOMENT 7 23.362 MOMENT 9 0.186 MOMENT 9 0.186 MOMENT 10 0.000 FORCE 11 12.0368 FORCE 12 12.0368 FORCE 14 - 2.6739 FORCE 15 - 2.6739 FORCE 16 - 0.0232
	SHEAR AT EACH BENC. MOMENT AT SEGMENT, KIPS FI-K	EACH DROINATE	SDIL REACTION AT	
	1 7.5238 1 49.9 2 -4.5225 2 110.1 3 -6.3672 4 72.6 5 -0.0234 6 0.1 5 -0.00234 6 5.0	857	-4.9762 -12.0363 -1.8288 3.4440 2.8739 0.0232 -12.5001	12.5001

## FIGURE E9-1.2

S matrix in two columns,  $ASA^T$  matrix with 1,000 factored (multiply tabulated values by 1,000), nodal deflection, and moments. Note that at node 1 the F value is 50 ft-kips, which is the applied value. Moment  $F_{10}$  should be zero. The sum of the soil reactions considering signs is 12.5 kips (applied value).

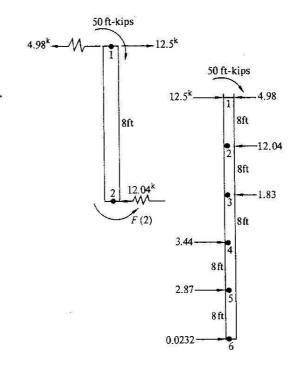


FIGURE E9-1.3

For the pile as a whole

$$\sum F_H = ?$$
 positive to right   
 $12.5 + 3.44 + 2.87 + 0.02 - 4.98 - 12.04 - 1.83 \cong 0$   
 $\sum M_{\text{base}} = ?$  clockwise = positive   
 $50 + 8[(2.87) + 2(3.44) - 3(1.83) - 4(12.04) - 5(4.98)] + 40(12.5) = ?$ 

Solving gives

$$50 + 8(-68.80) + 500 = ?$$
  
-550.4 + 550 \approx 0 \qquad \text{\fifty}

EXAMPLE 9-2 Repeat Example 9-1 using 10 pile segments.

SOLUTION The only card-input change is data card number 3. Change KL to 10:

10	0	1	1	2	1	1
	7.4/4				1000000 1000	

The partial computer output is shown on Fig. E9-2.1.

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```
J E BOWLES EXAMPLE 9-2 (128P74) W/10 DIV -- FREE-HEAD FOR TEXT
```

```
SUBGRADE MODULUS = 10.00 + 2.00*2**1.000

MAX LINEAR SOIL DEFORM, XMAX = 2.00 IN
THE MCMENT OF INERTIA OF THE PILE = 0.0273196 FT**4

PILE SEGMENT LENGTHS = 4.000 FT
```

					1.5
SHEAR A SEGMEN		BEND. MOI	MENT AT EACH ORDINATE	SCIL REACTION AT EA. ORD.KIPS	
23 45 -65 67 8 9	.4887 .2171 .5267 .7092 .44711 .7109 .9099 .5039	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 1 1	49.9961 / 91.9583 104.8083 94.7030 71.8715 46.1162 24.2385 9.4025 1.7706 -0.4230 -C.COCO	-2.0113 -7.2717 -5.7438 -3.1825 -0.7310 0.9691 1.7603 1.3595 0.6543 -0.1057	Checks

#### FIGURE E9-2.

Computer output for the pile of Example 9-1 using 10 divisions. Note that the moment at node 3 is 104.8 ft-kips compared with 110.2 ft-kips at node 2 (same location) in Example 9-1. More than about eight divisions does not improve the bending-moment computations. In both cases the sum of the soil reactions satisfies statics (= 12.5 kips).

EXAMPLE 9-3 Make a curve of pile-head response for a 12BP74 using metric units. Pile and soil data are:

Item	Metric	fps *
В	0.3705 m	1,214 ft
$I_{\mathbf{x}}$	$3.0512 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^4$	733.1 in <sup>4</sup>
$\boldsymbol{L}$	15 m	~50 ft
E	204,091,800 kN/sq m	30,000 ksi
XMAX	7.5 cm 3 i	

$$k_s = 1,570 + 3,500Z^{0.67} \text{ kN/cu m}$$
 (10 + 10 $Z^{0.67} \text{ kips/cu ft}$ )

#### SOLUTION Data cards are:

Card	Data
1	TITLE
	UNITS (UT1-UT6, $FU1 = 100$ .)
2	M CM KN KN-M KN/SQ M KN/CU M 100.
2	10 0 7 1 1 1 0
	Use number of load conditions (NLC) = 7 to read extra loads using only one $ASA^{T}$
	inversion
4	153705 0.0 204091800, 7.5
<b>4</b> 5	1570. 350067
6	.00030512
	12 50. (50 kN)
8	12 100.
7 8 ↓	
13	12 300.

Output for the first lateral load of 50 kN is shown in Fig. E9-3.1. Figure E9-3.2 is a plot of P versus  $\theta$  and P versus  $\Delta$  (used in Chap. 13).

```
JE BOWLES EXAMPLE 9-3 (14BP73) W/10 DIV USING METRIC UNITS

****** LATERALLY LOADED PILE BY FINITE ELEMENT METHOD

PILE LENGTH = 15.00 M PILE DIAM (IF ROUND) = C.C M

PILE HIDTH (IF SQ) = 0.3705 M PILE DIAM (IF ROUND) = C.C M

PILE HOD OF ELAS = 204091808 KN/SQ M

PILE HOD OF ELAS = 204091808 KN/SQ M

PILE HOD OF ELAS = 204091808 KN/SQ M

PILE SOUR SCIL STARTS = 1 NO OF LOAD CONDITIONS = 1

SUBGRADE MODULUS = 1570.00 + 3500.00*Z**0.670

MAX LINEAR SOIL DEFORM, XMAX = 7.50 CM

THE MOMENT OF INERTIA OF THE PILE = 0.0003051 M **4

PILE SEGMENT LENGTHS = 1.500 M

THE SOIL MODULUS AT NODE

1 1570.00000
2 6482.69609
3 13195.96875
6 15070.77344
7 16824.93750
8 18484.71875
9 20067.77334
11 23050.77236
8 18484.71875
9 10 21586.4063
11 23050.77266

SHEAR AT EACH BEND. MOMENT AT EACH CROINATE SOIL REACTION AT EACH CROINATE SCIL REACTION SCIL
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FIGURE E9-3.1 Input data and partial output data for pile using 10 divisions and metric units. Data are plotted in Fig. E9-3.2.

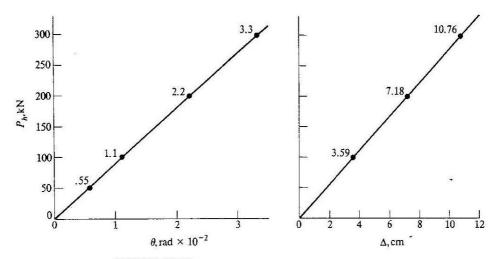


FIGURE E9-3.2 Pile-head response curves (metric units). Curves obtained by varying  $P_h$  and plotting the rotation and deflection of node 1.

### 9-4 SOIL MODULUS AND NONLINEARITY

It is generally conceded that in most soils the modulus-of-subgrade reaction increases with depth according to

$$k_s = A_s + B_s Z^n (9-1)$$

although sometimes

$$k_s = A_s + B\left(\frac{Z}{L}\right)^n \tag{9-1a}$$

is used. However, both equations are made identical by modifying  $B_s$  in Eq. (9-1):

$$B_s = \frac{B}{r^n}$$

For sand it appears that  $A_s = 0$  and Z = 1 is a reasonable approximation. In clay

$$k_s = A_s + B_s Z^n$$

where n = 0.4 to 0.8 has been used.

For  $A_s$  one may use

$$A_s \approx \begin{cases} 72q_u & \text{kips/cu ft} \\ 2.4q_u & \text{kg/cu cm}^* \end{cases}$$

<sup>\*</sup> To change  $A_3$  from kilograms per cubic centimeter to kilonewtons, multiply by 9,807.

One may use Eq. (2-25) by doubling it (although 1.70 to 1.80 might be better, as indicated in the next chapter) to obtain

$$k_s' = 1.30 \sqrt[12]{\frac{E_s B^4}{E_p I_p}} \frac{E_s}{1 - \mu^2}$$
 (9-2)

Note, however, that the units of  $k'_s$  are units of  $FL^{-2}$  and include pile width.

The borehole pressure meter may become a particularly effective means of obtaining  $E_s$  to convert to  $k_s$ . The value of  $E_s$  obtained from this device is for the horizontal direction and thus is directly applicable to the lateral modulus. There is also some question whether the lateral modulus obtained from soil tests is different after the pile is driven due to pile-volume displacement. One could, of course, drive a pile, extract it, and determine the lateral modulus using the borehole pressure meter to observe whether a significant change in  $k_s$  has occurred.

If lateral deflections are critical, one must use a "good" value of  $k_s$ . If only bending moment is important, almost any reasonable value of  $k_s$  may be used in the solution. In this respect, this solution is similar to the finite-difference solution. The exponent n in Eq. (9-1) will tend to move the maximum bending moment vertically.

The concept of nonlinear soil response was considered in Sec. 2-9, Fig. 2-8, and Sec. 5-10. One can correct lateral piles for excessive deformation in the same way as for the beam on an elastic foundation, i.e., remove the soil "spring" and apply a negative force of magnitude  $F = KX_{\text{max}}$  in the P matrix.

The  $k_s$  concentration factor (or method of building the soil spring constant) at a node point is slightly different when the exponent n is greater than zero. The method chosen is based on a parabola given by Newmark (1942):

$$K_1 = \frac{BL}{24} \left( 7k_{s(1)} + 6k_{s(2)} - k_{s(3)} \right)$$

$$K_n = \frac{BL}{24} (7k_{s(n)} + 6k_{s(n-1)} - k_{s(n-2)})$$

any other K

$$K_i = \frac{BL}{12} \left( k_{s(i-1)} + 10 k_{s(i)} + k_{s(i+1)} \right)$$

This is shown in Fig. 9-3 and is valid for the soil modulus varying linearly or as a second-degree parabola. Little error is introduced (less than associated with obtaining  $k_s$ ) for other values of exponent n by using small segment lengths.

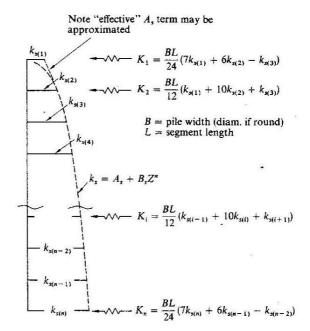


FIGURE 9-3 Soil-modulus variation with depth and method of concentration at nodes to build soil "springs."

### 9-5 PILE LENGTH AND/OR PARTIAL EMBEDMENT

Pile length is not a critical factor. The author hesitates to state a length which is mainly effective in resisting lateral load since effective length depends on load, soil modulus, and pile stiffness. However, for most piles of reasonable flexural rigidity (EI) and load and length of 30 ft or more the primary effectiveness is in the upper 30 to 40 percent of length. Thus, long piles, say more than 50 to 60 ft in length, can be analyzed on the basis of the top 50 ft.

The soil modulus in depths lower than this critical zone may be anything; hence, in Eq. (9-1) it may be easier to establish the modulus from the top down than the reverse. (The computer program included here requires that the modulus vary from the top down.)

For a pile in an offshore structure or railroad bent, etc., where it is partially freestanding and partially embedded, this solution is quite simple. One simply makes the soil springs in the S matrix zero in the freestanding part or, as in the computer program, starts the soil (JTSS) at the node where embedment begins.

Bending moments and lateral forces may be applied at any location along the pile using this method.

### 9-6 PILE-HEAD FIXITY

Piles generally terminate in a pile cap of some sort. The terminus may permit both translation or rotation (Fig. 9-1a); alternatively the head fixity may allow rotation but no translation. This case (Fig. 9-1b) requires modification of the computer program since inspection of Fig. 9-1a and b shows that  $P_{12}$ - $X_{12}$  has been shifted down the pile one node. With this adjustment made, the output will be out of balance, so that for the pile

$$\sum F_H \neq 0.0$$

by the amount of external force required at node 1 to cause no translation.

Lateral movement of the pile head can be treated by computing fixed-end moments based on a value of translation as

$$M_{\text{FEM}} = \frac{6EI\Delta}{L_{\star}^2}$$

where  $\Delta$  = assumed value of translation

L = pile segment length

These fixed-end moments including the shear effect are inserted in the P matrix at the appropriate nodes. The F matrix must be corrected for the fixed-end moments in the output.

If translation but no rotation can occur, the coding is as in Fig. 9-1c, which also requires modification of the included computer program. This is necessary because  $P_1$ - $X_1$  (the first rotational P-X) is moved down the pile one node. This adjustment will result in the moment

$$F_1 > 0.0$$

in the amount necessary to inhibit rotation. It may be noted in passing that one may allow the pile head to rotate some radians (fixity less than absolute) and compute the

resulting fixed-end moments. These values are computed as

$$M_{\text{FEM}} = \begin{cases} \frac{4E}{L} & \theta & \text{top at } F_1 \\ \\ \frac{2EI}{L} & \theta & \text{second node at } F_2 \end{cases}$$

These fixed-end moments at  $F_1$  would subtract from the final computed value of  $F_1$ . The fixed-end moment at  $F_2$  would go into the P matrix for  $P_1$ . Additionally the fixed-end-moment shear would be entered in  $P_{11}$  and  $P_{12}$ .

### 9-7 VALIDITY OF RESULTS

There is a reasonable amount of published literature from which to test the computer solution. It is immediately evident this method agrees with analytical solutions such as in Bowles (1968). It is desirable to check field work and preferably not models.

Results of a series of piles tested by Fruco and Associates (1964) provided the comparison shown in Fig. 9-4. This represents four piles randomly chosen from the

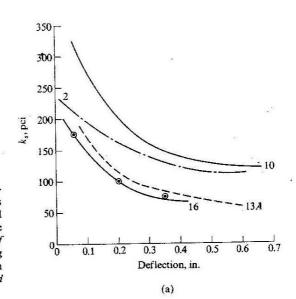
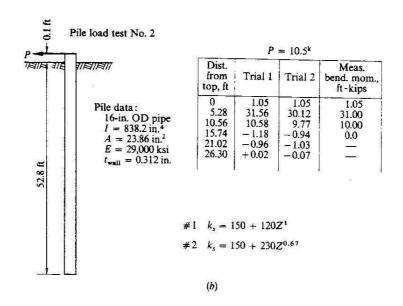
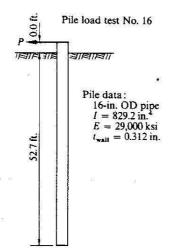


FIGURE 9-4 Comparison of pile test data and analytical method: (a) soil modulus for tests shown in parts (b) through (e). Measured bending moments taken from graphs. The author has used two variations of  $k_s = f$  (depth) to illustrate possibilities of using computer program to establish  $k_s$  from measured data. [Data from Fruco and Associates (1964).]



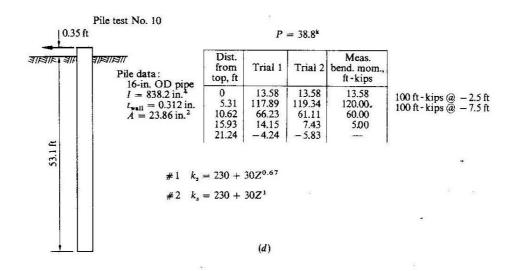


Dist. from top, ft	Trial 1	Trial 2	Meas, bend. mom., ft-kips
0	0	0	0
5.27	61.6	62.4	61.5
10.54	21.7	28.2	26.5
15.81	-2.15	1.19	+ 0.5
21.08	-2.46	-2.59	

#1  $k_s = 90 + 125Z^1$ #2  $k_s = 90 + 150Z^{0.67}$ 

(c)

FIGURE 9-4 (Continued)



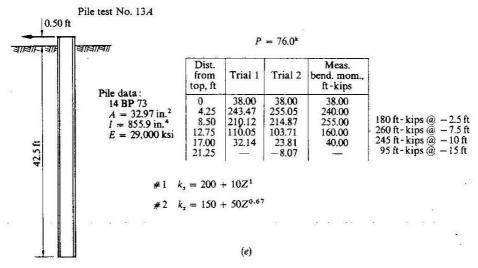


FIGURE 9-4 (Continued)

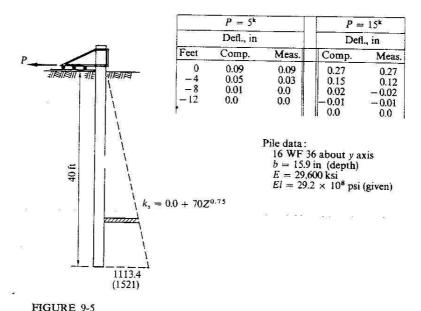
large number tested in the cited report. Figure 9-5 displays a comparison of computed versus measured deflections on a fixed-head pile from Mason (1957). In all cases the agreement is quite reasonable. These copious data are included to give the reader some real data to use with the included computer program to make his own comparisons.

# COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR LATERAL PILES

This computer program can be used to compute internal forces and pile displacements for a laterally loaded pile with head free to rotate and translate and for either a nodal moment or lateral force, or both. The pile may be square, as precastconcrete H-piles, or round, as pipe piles. The moment of inertia is computed for round or square solid pile sections and is to be read for all other pile sections.

. Note that EXPO is the exponent to compute  $k_s$  as

$$k_s = AS + BS*Z**EXPO$$



Fixed-head pile test for comparison of computer program. [Data from Mason (1957).] Deflections compare very well when using the variation of soil modulus shown. Mason's value is shown in brackets for the pile base (880 pci varying to the 0.67 exponent). He obtained this value on solving back from the deflections using the finite-difference method available when data were obtained. Solution obtained from computer programmed as Fig. 9-1c.

Do not read both BS and EXPO as 0.0 since zero raised to zero power is not defined. The program will compute in either fps or metric units using the UNITS data card and appropriate data entry. FU1 = 12. or 100. (metric).

Line	Operation
1–5	Bookkeeping operations; note that the $ASA^T$ matrix $\{E(I,J)\}$ is stored over the $A$ matrix; therefore, for nonlinear problems it is necessary to rebuild the $A$ matrix
6	READ TITLE, UNITS (two cards) Note that FU1 is on the UNIT card
8	READ
Sec.	KL = number of segments; JJS = number of nodes requiring adjustment in the $S$ matrix to allow for changes in I or soil spring K; NLC = number of loading conditions. Do not use if XMAX is tested, as program will not do both simultaneously; NI = counter to read moment of inertia; NP = number of nonzero $P$ -matrix entries; JTSS = joint soil starts; LIST = counter to list extra output if > 1
12	READ*
	XL = pile length, feet; BX = pile width, feet (if round use 0.); DX = pile diameter, feet (if square use 0.); ELAS = pile modulus of elasticity, ksf; XMAX = maximum value of linear soil deformation
16	READ AS = $k_s$ constant term (kcf); BS = $k_s$ variable with units to result in (kcf); EXPO =
187	exponent
19-34	Forms computation constants
31	READ XI (F10.4) (only if NI $> 0$ )
37–72	Builds flexural (EI) part of S matrix in two columns
85–101	Computes subgrade modulus at each node and, using concentration equations, finds K(I,1) at each node (note that first node is <i>reduced 50 percent</i> ). Also stores soil "springs" for XMAX check [SM(I)]
103	READ I,J, $S(I,J)$ (215,F10.4) Reads revised values of S matrix according to (and only if) JJS > 0
105-121	Computes and/or reads $P$ matrix. The values $G(I)$ are the nonlinear soil values if $X > XMAX$
140-147	Builds $ASA^T$ over $A$ matrix
154-166	Inverts ASA <sup>T</sup>
167-181	Computes $X$ and $F$ matrices. The $F$ matrix is corrected for any $G(I)$ soil entries
199-220	Computes shear and bending moment at each segment and writes values
222-239	Nonlinear check and stops if XMAX is exceeded in more than half the nodes
* Substiti	ate meters and kilonewtons for metric problems.
CGO12 CGO23 CGO05 CGO05 CGO06 CGO09 CGC09 CGC09 CGC11 CGC09 CGC11 CGC09 CGC11 CGC09 CGC11 CGC09 CGC11 CGC11 CGC09 CGC11 CGC09 CGC11 CGC01	JE BUHLES MATRIX DISPLACEMENT ANALYSIS OF A LATERALLY LOADED PILE #PILE MAY BE FULLY OR PARTIALLY EMBEDDED—JISS = NODE SOIL BEGINS UNITS = KIPS (KN); KSF (KN/SC M); KCF (KN/CM) TOR M EXCEPT XM XL = PILE LENGTH: BX = WIDTH SC PILE; CX = DIAM [F ROWND; BX OR XX XMAX = NON-LINEAR SOIL DEFT IN OR CM; NP = NO OF NON-ZERO P-ENTR NI > O TO READ MAM OF INERTIA; IIST = A, ASARIF > O; JJS = NO NODE S—MATRIX TO CORRECT; JISS = NODE SOIL STATS = I FULLY EMBEDD  EXPO = EXPONENT FOR SOIL MODE VARIATION WITH DEVIL F FULLY EMBEDD  ALC = NO DE LOADING CONDITIONS—CONLY FOR LARGE VALUES OF XMAX IF ANY NODE SPRING = O FOR XMAX—ADJACHAN SPRING REDUCED 25% (-) PIL) FORCE IS TO RIGHT OIMENSION X(47), P(47), F(70), F1(70), SOIR(70), SMOD(70), G(67), PM(67) OIMENSION X(47), F(47), F(70), F1(70), F0(46), TITLE(20) EQUIVALENCE (A(1,1), E(1,1) OOUBLE PRECISION UT5. UT6  6000 READ (1,1000, END=150) TITLE, UT1, UT2, UT3, UT4, UT5, UT6, FU1, FU2 READ (1,105)KL, JJS, NLC, NI, NP, JTSS, LIST  WRITE (3,100)) TITLE 1001 FORMAT (20A4/4(A4/6X), A8,2X,A8,2X,2X,100) PROMATICAL (17, 15,20A4) READ(1,4)XL, BX, DX, ELAS, XMAX 4 FORMATICAL (17, 15,20A4) 151 WRITE (3,93)XL, JJT1, BX, UT1, DX, UT1, ELAS, UT5, JJS, JTSS, NLC

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## **PROBLEMS**

- 9-1 Modify the included computer program for pile-head rotation without translation.
- 9-2 Modify the included computer program for pile-head translation without rotation.
- 9-3 Using the included computer program, what is the effect of reading into the S matrix for 4EI/L and 2EI/L at  $F_1$  a very large number?
- 9-4 Using the included computer program, what is the effect of reading into the S matrix a very large number for the soil spring K at the ground-level node?

9-5 Using the modified program of Prob. 9-1, make a plot of M versus  $\theta$  and R versus  $\theta$ , where

 $\theta$  = rotation at node 1

 $M = \text{various values of external moment applied at node 1 to induce } \theta$ 

R = amount of unbalanced force resulting from applied moment

What is the significance of these two plots?

9-6 Using the modified program of Prob. 9-2, make a plot of P versus  $\Delta$  and M versus  $\Delta$ , where

 $\Delta$  = deflection of node 1

 $P = \text{various values of applied lateral force at node 1 to induce } \Delta$ 

M = unbalanced end moment resulting from applied lateral force

What is the significance of the slopes of these two plots?

- 9-7 Make a study of the effect of pile stiffness and  $k_s$  on maximum bending moment for a selected pile section. Show results graphically.
- 9-8 Make a study and show results graphically of effective depth of pile (depth of significant deflection or bending moment) as a  $f(E1, k_s, L, \ldots)$ .
- 9-9 What is the effect if the laterally loaded pile is battered? Does the computer program require modification to solve this problem?

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## SHEET-PILE STRUCTURES

# 10-1 TYPES OF SHEET-PILE STRUCTURES

Sheet piling, for which typical sections<sup>1</sup> are shown in Fig. 10-1, is rather widely used to construct retaining structures, generally waterfront structures, where the pile-section flexibility and resulting deformation are not a major factor.

Sheet piling is also used in many excavations for temporary retaining structures. If the line of piling closes upon itself, the structures are cellular, a topic beyond the scope of this text.

The sheet-pile structure is termed a *cantilever* wall if the wall is laterally unsupported above the dredge line and an *anchored* wall (also anchored bulkhead) if lateral support is provided above the dredge line. *Braced sheeting* describes the structure formed in such a manner that bracing rather than piling embedment provides lateral stability.

Figure 10-2 illustrates typical structural configurations considered in this chapter.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Appendix tables contain more complete listings of sheet-pile sections.

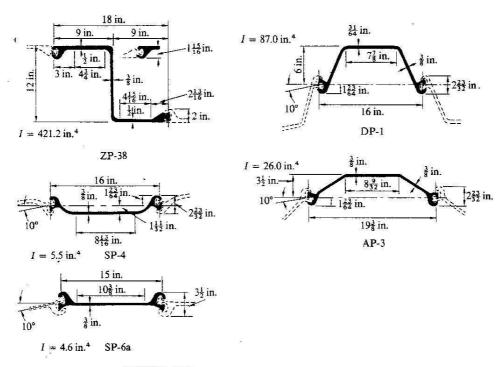


FIGURE 10-1 Typical sheet-pile sections and moments of inertia. (Bethlehem Steel Corp.)

### 10-2 DESIGN METHODS FOR SHEET-PILE WALLS

It is evident (refer to section properties in Appendix B) that with the relatively small section modulus furnished by sheet piling, cantilever walls (Fig. 10-2a) can be only of modest height. Heights of anchored piling can be much larger due to the lateral support provided by the anchor rod, which may be located at one or more levels.

A factor to consider where alternative walls are possible is that the cantilever wall is ready for service when the line of piling is driven, whereas the anchorage system for anchored sheet piling is an additional installation.

Several design-method alternatives for sheet-pile walls have been proposed [Ayers and Stokes (1954), Richart (1957), Turabi and Balla (1968), and Haliburton<sup>1</sup> (1968)] which do not seem to have been very widely accepted. Presently, most sheet-pile walls are designed on the basis of *free-earth* or *fixed-earth support*. The methods of analysis are shown in Fig. 10-3 (cantilever walls) and Fig. 10-4 (anchored walls).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See also discussion by Rauhut (1969).

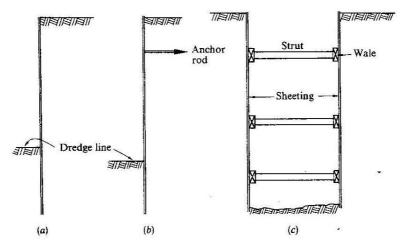


FIGURE 10-2

Sheet-pile installations. The (a) cantilever and (c) braced sheeting installations are commonly used to temporarily retain excavations for buildings, trenches, etc. (b) Anchored sheet-pile installations are more commonly used for waterfront structures (along with cantilevered sheet piling when wall height is low).

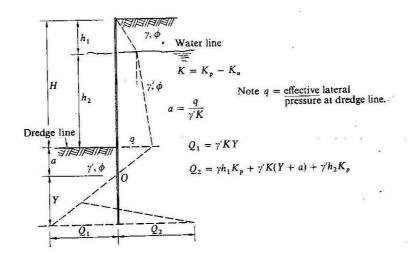


FIGURE 10-3

Assumption of earth pressure in the free-earth-support method of analysis for a cantilever sheet-pile wall in cohesionless soil. In general use Coulomb  $K_a$  and Rankine  $K_p$ 

The free-earth support (or fixed-earth) of Fig. 10-4 is sometimes modified by applying reduction factors to the bending moments computed by this method. The reduction factors, which were proposed by Rowe (1952, 1957), attempt to account for (1) the reduced bending moments actually obtained from anchor-rod and dredge-line deformations and (2) the fact that the pressure (passive) resultant in front of the wall is closer to the dredge line than the distance X/3 from the pile base shown in Fig. 10-4. The moment-reduction concept is illustrated in Fig. 10-5 and in Example 10-3.

Conventional design practice uses the concept of active earth pressure on the back face of the wall and passive pressures developed on the soil as shown in Figs. 10-3 and 10-4. For purely cohesive ( $\phi = 0$ ) or cohesionless soils (c = 0) solutions are relatively easy to obtain. Solutions are in a fourth-degree equation for cantilever walls in cohesionless soils, third-degree equations for anchored walls in cohesionless soils, and second-degree equations for both type walls for cohesive soils. For  $\phi$ -c soils (a very common occurrence) the solutions are much more difficult to obtain by the free-earth support methods.

#### Safety Factors

Safety factors are commonly applied by: (1) dividing the passive-earth-pressure coefficients and soil cohesion by a safety factor or (2) arbitrarily increasing the computed embedment depth by 20 to 40 percent.

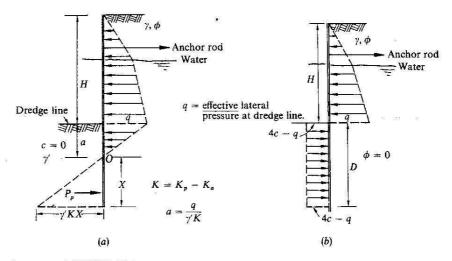


FIGURE 10-4
Soil-pressure assumptions in the free-earth method of analysis and determination of embedment depth of anchored sheet-pile walls: (a) cohesionless soil; (b) cohesive soil.

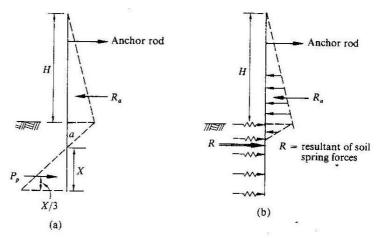


FIGURE 10-5
Moment-reduction concept of free-earth-designed sheet-pile walls explained by the finite-element method. Note that summing moments about the dredge line of free earth (a) will give a larger dredge-line moment than the finite element (b) because of the larger moment arm. Effectively, the finite-element solution moves the passive wall resistance vertically closer to the dredge line.

Safety factors commonly vary from 1.2 to 2.0 depending on the effect of a failure or large lateral earth movement. A safety factor of 1.3 to 1.5 is recommended for most sheet-pile work.

#### Steel Design Stresses

Design stresses may vary from  $0.6F_p$ , commonly used for steel structures (and implying SF = 1.67), to full guaranteed yield stress  $F_p$ . The lower values of allowable stresses should be used where uncertainty of soil parameters exist or where excessive earth deformations cannot be tolerated. If one is using a lateral-earth-pressure coefficient of 1.00, if there is little likelihood of water-level fluctuation, and if the soil unit weight is reasonably certain, a design stress of 90 to 100 percent of  $F_p$  can be used if wall deformation is not critical.

## 10-3 SHEET-PILE EARTH-PRESSURE COEFFICIENTS AND WALL FRICTION

Lateral earth pressure against a sheet-pile wall depends on the method of construction, backfilling, dredging, and yielding of the wall and anchor rod. Simplified design procedures have made use of the Rankine earth-pressure coefficients [Eq. (8-2)]

for active earth pressure [Ayers and Stokes (1954), Richart (1957), and Anderson (1956)]. The Coulomb earth-pressure coefficient [Eq. (8-1)] is more correct because of the large wall deformations which usually occur, involving slip along the back face of the wall. In the unlikely event of very little wall deformation the Rankine earth-pressure coefficient may be acceptable.

Considerable judgment is required to obtain the angle of internal friction for the earth-pressure coefficient. Cantilever walls are mostly used for excavations by driving a line and excavating on one side. In this case the  $\phi$  angle can be determined within reasonable limits. For anchored walls which may be part of a waterfront structure, the fill may be dredged and deposited through water or, at the least, in a highly fluid state. Friction angles may be zero or nearly so for a short period of time if materials with large amounts of silt or clay are used. The friction angle may be only 25 to 30° for sand and silty sand placed in this manner. In any case, it is important to use a reliable angle of internal friction since a 3 or 4° change in  $\phi$  may increase the lateral pressure 10 to 25 percent.

The angle of wall friction  $\delta$  will depend on the structural shape used. For straight and very shallow web sheet-pile sections the wall slip surface will develop at the interface of the two materials. When the wall consists of deep arch-web or Z-pile sections, Fig. 10-6 indicates the probable slip surface. With the slip partly soil to soil and partly soil to pile one may use an average angle  $\delta$  obtained as

$$\tan^{-1}\delta_{av} = \frac{\tan\phi + \tan\delta}{2}$$

Table 10-1 lists some values of skin-friction angle  $\delta$  for use in the Coulomb equation. Others have used  $\delta = m\phi$ , where m ranges from 0.5 to 1.00 depending on the material and engineer. The Coulomb earth-pressure coefficient  $K_a$  is not highly sensitive to a few degrees' variation in the wall-friction angle.

The Coulomb active-earth-pressure equation provides no ready means of evaluation with a cohesive-soil backfill. For cohesive soils, to make an allowance for wall

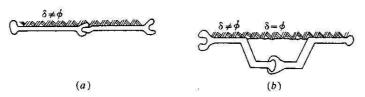


FIGURE 10-6

The shear-plane interface of soil-pile system when considering the Coulomb earth-pressure coefficient including the effect of wall friction: (a) straight and shallow web sheet piling; (b) deep arch-web and Z-sheet piling.

Table 10-1 SKIN-FRICTION COEFFICIENTS FOR SOIL AND VARIOUS CONSTRUCTION MATERIALS

φ = angle of internal friction; δ = friction angle of soil on material; for cohesive soil, c<sub>a</sub> = adhesion; c = cohesion, using consistent units

Steel Polished $0.54$ $0.64$ $0.76$ $0.80$ $0.92$ $0.65$ $0.87$ $0.80$ $0.95$ $0.95$ $0.96$	Material	Surface finish	Dense 0.06	Dense sand, $0.06 < D < 2.0$ *	Cohesic 0.002 <	Cohesionless silt, $0.002 < D < 0.06*$		Cohesiv soil, 50 50% said	Cohesive granular soil, 50% clay, 50% sand,	Clay, $r D \leq 0$ .	Clay, remolded $D \le 0.06^*$
Polished         Dry         Saturated dense         LOS         Dense         Dense           Polished $\delta/\phi$ , $\delta/\phi$					į	Saturate	þ	$\frac{\lambda_{e}!}{v} = 13$	to 17%,	<sup>1</sup> c! − 22	v = 22  to  26%
Polished         0.54         0.64         0.79         0.40         0.68         0.40         0.65         0.35           Rusted         0.76         0.80         0.95         0.95         0.48         0.75         0.65         0.35           Parallel to grain         0.76         0.85         0.92         0.55         0.87         0.30         0.20           Metal-formed         0.76         0.80         0.98         0.63         0.95         0.90         0.40           Wood-formed         0.88         0.83         0.98         0.62         0.96         0.90         0.58           On compacted ground         0.98         0.90         1.00         0.79         1.00         0.95         0.80			Dry δ/φ.	Saturated $\delta/\phi$	Dry, dense δ/φ	Loose δ/φ	Dense δ/φ	80/8	$c_a/c$	84/8	$c_a/c$
Rusted         0.76         0.80         0.95         0.48         0.75         0.65         0.35           Parallel to grain         0.76         0.85         0.92         0.55         0.87         0.30         0.20           At right angles to grain         0.88         0.89         0.98         0.63         0.95         0.90         0.40           Wetal-formed         0.76         0.80         0.92         0.50         0.87         0.84         0.42           Wood-formed         0.88         0.83         0.98         0.62         0.96         0.90         0.58           On compacted ground         0.98         0.90         1.00         0.79         1.00         0.95         0.80	Stool	Polished	0.54	0.64	0.79	0.40	0.68	0.40		0.50	0.25
Parallel to grain         0.76         0.85         0.92         0.55         0.87         0.30         0.20           At right angles to grain         0.88         0.89         0.98         0.63         0.95         0.90         0.40           Metal-formed         0.76         0.80         0.92         0.50         0.87         0.84         0.42           Wood-formed         0.88         0.83         0.98         0.62         0.96         0.90         0.58           On compacted ground         0.98         0.90         1.00         0.79         1.00         0.95         0.80	מוררו	Rusted	0.76	0.80	0.95	0.48	0.75	9.65	0.35	0.50	0.50
At right angles to grain         0.88         0.89         0.98         0.63         0.95         0.90         0.40           Metal-formed         0.76         0.80         0.92         0.50         0.87         0.84         0.42           Wood-formed         0.88         0.83         0.98         0.62         0.96         0.90         0.58           On compacted ground         0.98         0.90         1.00         0.79         1.00         0.95         0.80	Wood (nine)	Parallel to grain	0.76	0.85	0.92	0.55	0.87	0.30	0.20	0.60	4.0
Metal-formed         0.76         0.80         0.92         0.50         0.87         0.84         0.42           Wood-formed         0.88         0.83         0.98         0.62         0.96         0.90         0.58           On compacted ground         0.98         0.90         1.00         0.79         1.00         0.95         0.80	Carried Thomas	At right angles to grain	0.88	0.89	86.0	0.63	0.95	06'0	0.40	0.70	0.50
Wood-formed         0.88         0.83         0.98         0.62         0.96         0.90         0.58           On compacted ground         0.98         0.90         1.00         0.79         1.00         0.95         0.80	Concrete	1000	0.76	08.0	0.92	0.50	0.87	0.84	0.42	89.0	0.40
On compacted ground 0.98 0.90 1.00 0.79 1.00 0.95 0.80	(1 to 3 in		0.88	0.83	86.0	0.62	96.0	06'0	0.58	08.0	0.50
	aggregate)		0.98	06.0	1.00	0.79	1.00	0.95	08.0	0.95	0.60

 $\dagger I_c = \text{consistency index.}$  § Clay may have an angle of internal friction. \* Grain size in millimeters. source: Potyondy (1961).

adhesion one must use the method of wedges, as shown in Fig. 10-7. Table 10-1 can be used as a guide for the ratio of cohesion to adhesion in the absence of laboratory tests. The trial wedges can be computer-programmed since the force polygon involves only two unknown vectors (directions are known), one of which is  $P_a$ . All weight and cohesion vectors are known, and by incrementing  $\rho$  in 1° intervals the maximum value of  $P_a$  can be found. Excess pore pressure in the backfill will make computation of the weight vector considerably more difficult.

## 10-4 DESIGN OF SHEET-PILE WALLS BY MATRIX METHODS

The matrix (finite-element) method of sheet-pile wall analysis and design is by far the most efficient means currently available and can be made to include many special analysis problems such as extra pull on the anchor rod, initial wall deflection, etc. The matrix method directly gives the moment reduction proposed by Rowe (1952, 1954, 1957) by directly considering the soil-pile interaction, the flexibility EI of the pile, and its height. The deformation of the soil at and below the dredge line is also automatically considered, as well as the anchor-rod force and deformation if the pile system is anchored. The same computer program can be used for both cantilever and anchored walls.

The modulus-of-subgrade reaction is again used in this analysis to provide a Winkler lateral support of the sheet pile below the dredge line. For a check on the reliability (and validity) of this concept, the soil pressure resulting from the computed deflections is computed and compared to see whether the soil pressures are reasonable or possible. In passing, it should be noted that the soil pressures obtained are those required for stability and are nearly independent of the value of subgrade modulus used. The final soil pressures are somewhat influenced by the flexural stiffness of the sheet piling and wall height (lateral force to be resisted). The real advantage of this method is that one can now inspect the soil pressures to see if they are reasonable, thus eliminating the uncertainty of the free-earth method, where a passive resistance is computed whether the soil can carry that resistance or not. The soil pressures using the finite-element method are larger nearer the dredge line (which is the cause of Rowe's moment reduction) than those assumed using the free-earth type of analyses.

If, in the opinion of the designer, the soil cannot carry the computed lateral pressures without a soil failure, the wall system must be changed. It may require stiffer pile sections to transfer the lateral resistance deeper, modification of soil, relocation of the anchor rod, reduction of the wall height, etc. Generally just increasing embedment depth (beyond a minimum) for a given pile section does very little to reduce the soil pressure, bending moments, or the lateral deflections. In fact, there is a

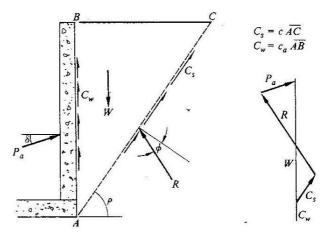


FIGURE 10-7 The use of a trial-wedge solution for backfills with cohesion. The force polygon shown can be programmed on the computer to vary the  $\rho$  angle and find the equivalent earth-pressure coefficient.

serious theoretical question of what numerical improvement in safety factor is gained by increasing the embedment beyond that for which lateral deflection and soil pressures are tolerable. Probably a 10 to 30 percent increase in embedment should be made over the required depth, however, to allow for accidental overdredging.

Referring to Fig. 10-8, essentially the same procedure as introduced in Chaps. 5 and 8 is used here. That is,

$$P = AF$$

$$e = A^{T}X$$

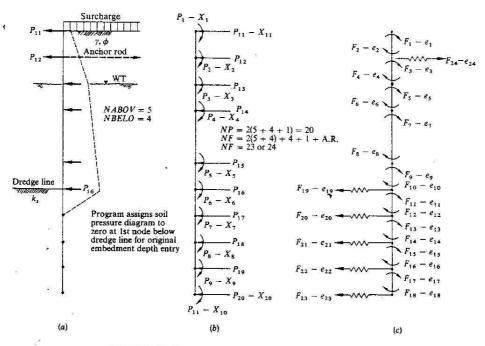
$$F = Se$$

$$X = [ASA^{T}]^{-1}P$$

and finally the section shear and bending moments are computed as

$$F = SA^TX$$

Coding the problem is shown on the P-X and F-e diagrams of Fig. 10-8. Note that the soil springs are the end F's with the anchor rod as the very last F value; also therefore the last entry in the S matrix. This coding scheme allows easy access to the S matrix if one needs to modify the anchor rod or treat the soil as nonlinear. This coding also makes it easy to modify the computer program for additional anchor rods.



#### FIGURE 10-8

Coding the sheet-pile wall for the finite-element solution. We may have a surcharge q, as shown, and the wall may be cantilevered (no anchor rod) or anchored (if anchored, NF = 24 as shown). Coding location of soil "springs" and anchor rod allows easy adjustment for wall type or nonlinear soil behavior. Note that the soil "springs" are nodal forces, not element forces. The pressure diagram in (a) is converted to equivalent lateral forces as P-matrix entries with subscripts shown.

By coding the anchor rod as the last S-matrix entry, the same computer program can be used for designing a cantilever wall by reducing the S matrix by the anchor-rod entry and not entering an anchor-rod value in the A matrix.

#### 10-5 EXAMPLES

This method of analysis will be illustrated by several examples. Example 10-1 illustrates the coding and partial output for a cantilever wall. Example 10-2 illustrates the conventional analysis of an anchored sheet-pile wall to obtain an embedment depth to use in Example 10-3, where the finite-element method is used and compared to Rowe's moment reduction. The sensitivity of the solution to EI and  $k_s$  is also illustrated.

EXAMPLE 10-1 Analyze the cantilever sheet-pile wall shown in Fig. E10-1.1 (first page of computer output). Also show a partial check of the output. Note in the checking of results that  $F_1 = 0.00$  within computer roundoff; likewise,  $F_2 = -F_3$ , etc. Use metric units.

SOLUTION For the wall shown it is assumed  $k_s = 25 + 0.0Z^1$  (kcf). One can determine this value using the procedure of Example 10-3 or methods given in Chap. 2. To reduce deflection (max  $\Delta = 1.50$  in) we will use an MZ38 section with a tabulated I of 421.1 in<sup>4</sup> for an 18-in width. The modulus of elasticity is 29,600 ksi. Wall and soil properties are shown on Fig. E10-1.1. Converting to metric units (use Table 2-8) gives

$$I = 421.1 \frac{3.283}{1.5} (41.62)10^{-8} = 0.0003837 \text{ m}^4$$
 (per meter of wall width)

$$XMAX = 1.5(2.54) = 3.81 \text{ cm}$$

$$H = 15(0.3048) = 4.572 \text{ m} = \text{depth to water}$$
 Segment length = 0.910 m

Embedment depth = 
$$9(0.3048) = 2.743 \text{ m}$$
 Segment length =  $0.550 \text{ m}$ 

$$\gamma_{\text{sat}} = 132.5(0.15709) = 20.81 \text{ kN/cu m}$$
 112.0(0.15709) = 17.59 kN/cu m

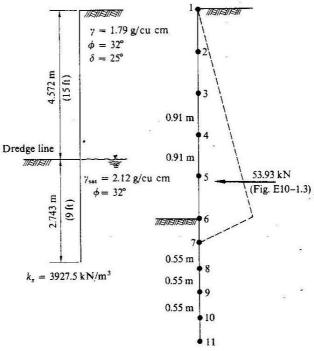
$$k_s = 25(157.09) = 3,927.5 \text{ kN/cu m}$$

$$E = 29.600(144)(47.882) = 204,084,000 \text{ kN/sq m}$$

There will be no external S-matrix entries (JJS = 0), and we will cycle as required (KSTOP = 0) up to five cycles. The input data cards are as follows:

#### Card Data 1 TITLE (see Fig. E10-1.1) UNITS (UT1 - UT6, FU1 - FU4) UT1 = M, UT2 = CM, etc., FU1 = 100., FU2 = .3, FU3 = 10., FU4 = 9.8072 NBELO JJS KSTOP NCYCC NABOV 3 HROD ERN HWALL ELAS DEMB FAC $3.837 \times 10^{-4} \quad 20.4 \times 10^{7}$ 0.0 2.743 HWAT GSAT GWET PHI DELTA SCHGE XMAX ARODK (Note that 10-4 and 107 above are not punched on data cards) 4.572 20.81 17.59 32. 3927.5 0 1.0 Pile segments H(I), I = 1,MM1 MM1 = 10.910 .910 .910 .910 .910 .550 .550 .550 .550 NODWAT NODAR (nodes locating water and anchor rod)

These nine cards represent the problem-data input. In this example the computer incremented the embedment depth from 2.743 to 3.34 m. The computer always increments once (0.6 m for cantilever and 0.3 m for anchored sheet piles). Both the 2.743- and 3.34-m embedment-depth output is given so that the user may select the depth most suitable. Note on Fig. E10-1.2 that the top lateral deflection is -0.122 m (12) and the dredge line (17) is -0.0357 < 0.0381 m. The 0.6-m increase in depth reduced the dredge-line deflection from 0.0465 to 0.0357 m. Not all the computer output is shown. Also see Fig. 10-1.3.

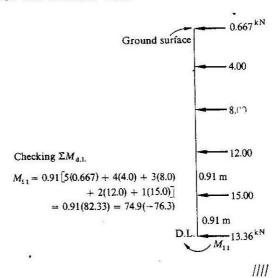


# FIGURE E10-1.1 General input data written back as an input check. The lower two lines are computation counters. A sketch of conditions has been placed on the sheet for checking convenience.

THE 12345678901123	E T	344 17:34 17:34 17:34 17:34 17:56 17:56	420 420 420 420 420 420 420 420 420 420	X6363636363525 L	Q909090909838 D	МΔ	172 342 174 174 174 174 174 174 174 174 174 174	S-I 103. 206. 1206. 1203. 1206. 1206. 1206. 1206. 1206. 1206. 7555. 752.	19 51509 151519	14 15 16 178 19 20 21 22 23 22 26	IN	2525252	847 847 849 849 849 849 849 849 849 849 849 849		383838326888 63636556888	5695 2847 5695 2847 5695 2847 5695	50525-636-3000000000000000000000000000000000	38 38 38 38 8 8 CE MATRIX
KN LOADDLOADDLOADDLOADDLOADDLOADDLOADDLOAD		RRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRR	12234567789011233456789011234567890110000000000000000000000000000000000	00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	000000000000000000000000000000000000000	66 99 98 98 97 60	5 0 4 9			1234567		00000000001100000000	1922 1922 1932 1932 1932 1932 1932 1932	685244 685305707979999999999999999999999999999999	5.++325.453.++9.673.++9.633	MOMENTY MOMENT	234567890123456789012345	OR NO 05477048275770482757048275770482757704827577048275770482757373737373737373737373737373737373737

FIGURE E10-1.2 General computer computations for checking. Note that the soil pressure converted to nodal forces is shown, as are the nodal rotations and deflections. Each F force is shown; note those which should be zero or equal and opposite.

\*\*\*\*\*FINAL EMBEDMENT LENGTH OF SHEET PILE = 3.34 M OUTPUT ABOVE FOR THIS EMBEDMENT VALUE



#### FIGURE E10-1.3

Final output identified as shown. Note that embedment depth has been in-increased 0.6 m. Partial static check of moment at dredge line. Program checks  $\Sigma F_h = 0$ . Soil pressure shown is nearly independent of the modulus-of-subgrade reaction. This problem was run in single precision, and small roundoff errors are present.

EXAMPLE 10-2 Determine the depth of embedment, the anchor-rod force, and maximum bending moment in the anchored sheet-pile wall shown (1-ft strip) in Fig. E10-2.1.

SOLUTION The solution will be based on the free-earth-support method. Pressure diagrams and critical dimensions are shown in Fig. E10-2.2. Coulomb active and Rankine passive pressure coefficients will be used.

Find wall pressures and distance a:

$$K_a = 0.2645$$
  $K_p = 3.3921$   $\sigma_1 = 6(0.112)(0.2645) = 0.178 \text{ ksf}$   $\sigma_2 = \sigma_1 + 14(0.066)(0.2645) = 0.422 \text{ ksf}$   $K = K_p - K_a = 3.127$   $a = \frac{\sigma_2}{\gamma' K} = \frac{0.422}{0.066(3.127)} = 2.045 \text{ ft}$  Find  $R_a$  and  $\bar{y}$ 

$$R_a = 3(0.178) + 7(0.178 + 0.422)$$
  
+ 0.422(1.022) = 5.165 kips

4 ft

Summing moments about 0, we find

$$\ddot{y} = 9.482 \text{ ft}$$
 Find  $X \text{ as } \sum M_{\text{ar}} = 0$ :  
 $y'R_p - \bar{y}R_a = 0$   
 $y'\frac{KX^2}{2} (18.045 + 0.67X) - 9.482(5.165) = 0$   
 $0.0688X^3 + 1.8621X^2 - 48.974 = 0$ 

Solving, we have

$$X \cong 4.80 \text{ ft}$$
  $D = X + a = 4.80 + 2.05$   
= 6.85 ft

Find anchor-rod force:

$$R_p = 0.066(3.127)(4.80)^2(\frac{1}{2}) = 2.38 \text{ kips}$$
  
 $\sum F_H = 0$   
 $F_a + R_p - R_a = 0$   
 $F_a = 5.165 - 2.38 = 2.78 \text{ kips}$ 

#### FIGURE E10-2.1

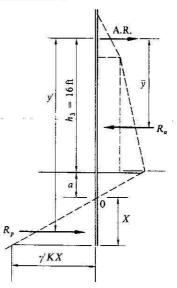


FIGURE E10-2.2

This completes computations of critical wall dimensions for SF = 1. The following is a summary for several safety factors:

SF	X, ft	a, ft	D, ft	$F_a$ , kips
1	4.80	2.05	6.85	2.78
1.2	5.30	2,50	7.80	2.88
1.3	5.50	2.73	8.23	2.97
1.4	5.70	2.96	8.66	3.04

Find the maximum moment for SF = 1.3 (see Fig. E10-2.3). Find location of zero shear ( $\sum F_h = 0$ ):

$$0.534 - 2.97 + 0.178y + 0.066(0.2645)y \frac{y}{2} = 0$$

$$0.00873y^2 + 0.178y = 2.436$$

$$y = 9.375$$
 ft below W.T.

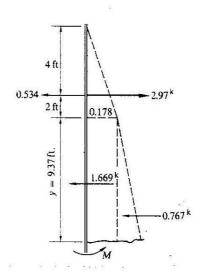


FIGURE E10-2.3

The maximum bending moment is

$$M = 0.534(15.375 - 4) - 2.97(11.375) + 1.669 \frac{9.375}{2} + 0.767 \frac{9.375}{3}$$

$$= -27.71 + 7.828 + 2.40$$

$$= -17.482 \text{ ft-kips}$$
////

EXAMPLE 10-3 Analyze and compare the finite-element output with the bending moment obtained in Example 10-2. Also compare with Rowe's moment-reduction concept. Rowe's moment-reduction curves are in Bowles (1968) and Rowe (1952, 1954, 1957). Show partial problem statics check on computer output sheets.

SOLUTION (using a MP110 sheet-pile section). Take D=8 ft as average of SF = 1.2 and 1.3 of Example 10-2. Take anchor rod as 1.825-in-diam cable 20 ft long and spaced 16 ft on centers.

$$K_{\rm ar} = \frac{AE}{L} = \frac{0.7854(1.825)^2(29,600)}{20(16)} = 242.0 \text{ kips/ft}$$

The soil modulus can be estimated as follows:

$$q_{\text{ult}} = qN_q + \frac{1}{2}\gamma BN_{\gamma}$$

$$= 0.066(26.1)Z + \frac{1}{2}(0.066)(1)(29.3)$$

$$= 1.7Z + 1$$

$$k = \frac{q}{\Delta} = 12q$$

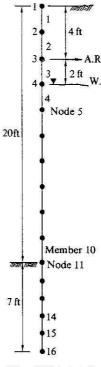
but double for soil on both sides

$$k_s = 24 + 1.7(24)Z \rightarrow 24 + 40Z^1$$

Also try

$$k_s = 12 + 40Z^1$$
 and  $k_s = 48 + 40Z^1$ 

The problem is entered on nine data cards, as follows (refer to Fig. E10-3.1 for nodes, elements, etc.):



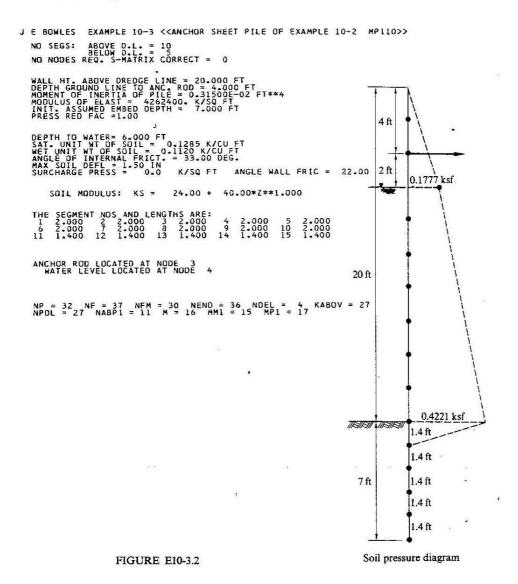
$$NP = 2(10 + 5 + 1) = 32$$
  
 $NF = 2(10 + 5) + 6 + 1 = 37$ 

#### FIGURE E10-3.1

Card	Data
1	TITLE
2	UNITS (in this example fps units) UT1-UT6, $FU1 = 12$ ., $FU2 = 1$ ., $FU3 = 144$ ., $FU4 = .0625$
3	NABOV NBELO JIS KSTOP NCYCL
4	HWALL HROD ERN ELAS DEMB FAC 20. 4.0 .00315 4262400 7.0* 1.
5	HWAT GSAT GWET PHI DELTA SCHGE XMAX ARODK 6.0 .1285 .112 33. 22. 0.0 1.5 242.0
6	12. 40. 1.00
7–8	Pile-segment lengths H(I), I = 1,MM1 MM1 = 15 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 2.0 1.4 1.4 1.4 1.4 1.4
9	4 3 (water node and anchor-rod node)

<sup>\*</sup> Note that embedment depth is initially 7.0 ft since the computer program automatically increments depth of anchored walls by 1 ft.

Partial output and output checks are illustrated in Figs. E10-3.2, E10-3.3, and E10-3.4 following.



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FIGURE E10-3.3

THE TOTAL LOAD MATRIX	THE JOINT DEFL FT OR RADS ARE	THE FORCE MATRIX KIPS OR FT-K
LOAD DIR. 1 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 2 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 3 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 4 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 6 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 8 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 10 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 10 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 12 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 12 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 14 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 15 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 16 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 17 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 18 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 19 0.2370 DIR LOAD DIR. 20 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 20 0.2370 DIR LOAD DIR. 21 0.2370 DIR LOAD DIR. 22 0.4951 DIR LOAD DIR. 22 0.4951 DIR LOAD DIR. 23 0.5649 DIR LOAD DIR. 25 0.7045 DIR LOAD DIR. 26 0.7745 DIR LOAD DIR. 27 0.6074 DIR LOAD DIR. 28 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 27 0.6074 DIR LOAD DIR. 28 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 28 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 30 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 31 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 31 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 32 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 32 0.0 DIR LOAD DIR. 32 0.0 DIR	= 10 -0.0029593 = 11 -0.0034126 = 12 -0.0033026 = 13 -0.0028908 = 14 -0.0024239 = 15 -0.0021224	MOMENT 1 -0.0011 MOMENT 2 -0.0387 MOMENT 3 -0.0376 MOMENT 4 -0.3176 MOMENT 5 -0.3176 MOMENT 5 -0.3176 MOMENT 7 3.2896 MOMENT 8 -6.20017 MOMENT 9 6.2017 MOMENT 10 -8.2593 MOMENT 11 8.2693 MOMENT 11 9-3.2899 MOMENT 12 -9.3289 MOMENT 12 -9.3289 MOMENT 13 -9.3289 MOMENT 13 -9.3289 MOMENT 14 -9.2668 MOMENT 15 -7.9341 MOMENT 15 -7.9341 MOMENT 16 -7.9341 MOMENT 17 -7.9341 MOMENT 19 -3.8958 MOMENT 20 -8.8958 MOMENT 20 -8.8958 MOMENT 21 -3.0070 MOMENT 22 -3.0071 MOMENT 23 -4.9918 MOMENT 25 -4.9921 MOMENT 26 -4.6627 MOMENT 27 -4.6627 MOMENT 28 -1.7210 MOMENT 29 -1.7210 MOMENT 29 -1.7210 MOMENT 29 -1.7210 MOMENT 30 -0.0001 **FORCE 31 -0.3152 **FORCE 32 -1.6670 **FORCE 34 -0.9461 **FORCE 35 -1.9756 OD FORCE 37 2.1792
0.0197		$F_{20} = 0.8965 \text{ft-kips}$
0.1185	R = 2.756	315 0.327 ft
0.2370	2.179 1.1	263
0.3473	1.	697 <sup>k</sup>
*	0.5	946——
0.4253		1.6 ft 0.388
0.4951		1.6 ft 1.076 k
$R = 4.929^{k}$		Statics check
$\frac{R}{= 4.929}$ 0.6347		B 600 5
0.7045 2 ft		
0.7743 2 ft		
0.6074 <sup>k</sup>		
Check $\Sigma F_H = 0$		
$\Sigma F_H = 2.179 + 2.756 - 4.929$ = 4.935 - 4.929 \(\preceq 0\)		

FIGURE E10-3.4

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A tabulation of computations follows (based on 8-ft final embedment).

		Force in	Bending m ft-kips at i		Max soil	pressure
k <sub>s</sub>	Section	anchor rod, kips	At 7 ft	At 8 ft	ksf	Node
$12 + 40Z^{1}$	MP110	2.20	9.55	9.55	1.461	16
	MP116	2.12	8.87	8.70	1.589	16
	MZ27	2.41	11.17	11.56	0.910	16
$24 + 40Z^{1}$	MP110	2.14	9.33	9.27	1.433	16
	MP116	2.10	8.67	8.45	1.528	16
	MZ27	2.38	10.92	11.25	0.937	16
$48 + 40Z^{1}$	MP110	2.10	8.97	8.81	1.383	16
	MP116	2.06	8.36	8.07	1.423	16
	MZ27	2.33	10.49	10.72	0.979	16

This tabulation illustrates that the solution is relatively insensitive to  $k_s$  in terms of either bending moment or soil pressure.

Check Rowe's moment-reduction method:

$$\rho = \frac{H^4}{EI} \qquad H \text{ in feet, } EI \text{ in psi}$$

For MP116

$$I = 39.75 \text{ in}^4 \qquad \text{(per foot of wall)}$$

$$\rho = \frac{28^4}{29.6 \times 10^6 I} = \frac{0.02076}{I} = 0.000522$$

$$\log \rho = -3.282$$

For MP110

$$I = 65.4 \text{ in}^4$$
  $\rho = 0.000317$ 

$$\log \rho = -3.498$$

For MZ27

$$I = 184.20$$
  $\rho = 0.000113$ 

$$\log \rho = -3.948$$

$$\alpha = \frac{H_{\text{dL}}}{H} = \frac{20}{28} = 0.71$$
  $\beta = \frac{H_{\text{ar}}}{H} = \frac{4}{28} = 0.14$ 

From moment-reduction curves at  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ ,  $\log \rho$  one obtains  $M/M_0$  = reduction factor as follows:

Sheet pile	Loose sand	Dense sand	Average	Finite element*
MP116	0.63	0.47	0.55	0.51†
MP110	1.10	0.58	0.84	0.55
MZ27	>1	0.78	0.90	0.66

<sup>\*</sup> Using  $k_s = 12 + 40Z^1$ .

////

#### VALIDITY OF THE MATRIX SOLUTION AND GENERAL COMMENTS

The validity of the solution has been checked using results reported by Rowe (1952) in Fig. 10-9. Data shown on the figure should enable the user to verify the data also. Since Rowe provided stress-strain data on the soil used in the tests, Eq. (9-2) was used to establish the  $k_s$  values shown on Fig. 10-9.

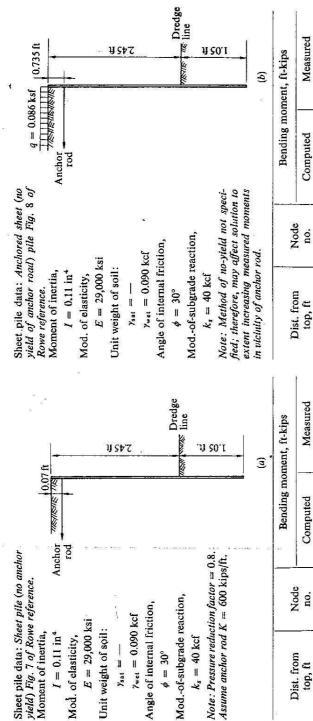
This method of solution was further compared to selected test data from Tschebotarioff's (1949b) Princeton University tests. Some of these data were also made available by Tschebotarioff (1948, 1949a). Typical tests and comparisons are shown in Fig. 10-10a.

A full-scale field-test comparison [Matich et al. (1964)] is shown in Fig. 10-10b. The matrix method should use enough pile segments both above and below the dredge line to reasonably define the elastic curve of the pile. This can generally be accomplished using five to eight segments above the dredge line and four to six segments below, depending on the location of the anchor rod.

Most analytical methods do not consider the wall construction method or sequence. Matching measured values with an analytical solution is very difficult except for Rowe's model tests. Since Rowe filled both sides of the wall equally with dry sand, then excavated one side, the backfill method and sequence of attaching the anchor rod were not problem parameters. Tschebotarioff's tests were far more realistic of on-site construction since they included both saturated and wet soils, anchor-rod sequence, and backfilling operation. As a consequence it is considerably more difficult to obtain an analytical comparison.

The field test (Fig. 10-10b) is even more difficult to match since the backfill varied and the backfill operation undoubtedly influenced the measured stresses. It should be noted, however, that in both the Tschebotarioff tests and the field test the matrix method satisfactorily computes bending moments, although in the field test the location of maximum moment differs somewhat from the analytical location.

<sup>†</sup> Value found as 8.87/17.48, etc.



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	-		•
H013	Node	Bending mor	Bending moment, ft-kips
top, ft	no.	Computed	Measured
	I	0	0
7	2	0	0
801	m	0.0109	00'0
9116	4	0.0223	0.020
27	٠,	0.0301	0,028
1.63	9	0.0328	0.033
74	,	0.0297	0.030
5	∞	0.0198	0,022
=	6	0.0102	0.015
<u></u>	01	0,0043	0.00
4	Ξ	0.0011	0.004
00	12	0	0

+0.30 (+13%) +0.026 (D.L.) +0.020 +0.015 +0.015

+0.30 +0.34 +0.25 +0.014 +0.006 +0.002

264897860117

0.408 0.735 0.816 1.22 1.63 2.04 2.45 2.71 2.71 3.24 3.50

4.2 in

-0.004 -0.017 (A.R.) -0.013 +0.009 +0.026

 $\begin{array}{c} -0.002 \\ -0.009 \\ -0.011 \\ +0.014 \end{array}$ 

FIGURE 10-9 Sheet-pile model tests. Typical data given by Rowe (1952) are shown in (a) and (b) versus computed data.

...

Anchor rod III   Dredge   4 ft   10.06   10.01   10.06	Bending moment, ft-kips	Measured	0	0 (A.R.)	0	25.00	35.00	37.00	23.00	-4.00	-29.00	-28.00	0.4.00	,	
	Bending m	Computed	0	-0.268	+3.50	+22.71	36.35	39.63	25.88	-0.365	-21.31	-19.55	, -9.13 0	,	•
Ship channe ation no. 1 in, in, in, in, in, in, in, in,	Node	no.	-	7	m·	4	so a	o r-	· ∞	6	01	11	17	ì	
Sheet pile data: Ship channel extension, Toronto, location no. 1 (Matich et al., 1964).  Moment of inertia, $I = 217.5$ in 4  Mod. of elasticity, $E = 30,000$ ksi  Unit weight of soil: $P_{sat} = 0.125$ kcf $P_{vet} = 0.107$ kcf  Angle of internal friction, $\phi = 36^{\circ}$ Modof-subgrade reaction, $k_s = 40$ kcf  Note: Anchor rod $K = 630$ kips/ft.  Values taken from small scale graph for bending moments.	Diet from	top, fr	0	4.0	4.857	9.71	14.57	24.79	29.14	34.00	38.00	42.00	50.00		
F. Dredge 5.0 ft	Bending moment, ft-kips	Measured	0	-0.001	-0.0037	-0.010	-0.018 (A.R.)	+0.07	+0.046	+0.051 (+36%)	+0.043	+0.025	-0.004 (D.L.) -0.027	-0.030	-0.027
Anchor rod n tests. Anchor rod n, n, seters anchor be 165 lb \$\phi\$ increased soil density. = 1.00.	Bending mo	Computed	0	-0.0005	-0.004	-0.0145	-0.020	+0.034	+0.0508	+0.0692	+0.0688	+0.0478	+0.004	-0.040	-0.036
in 4 inceton tests. in 4 in 4 in 5 in 7 in 6 in 7	Node	no.	-	7	m ·	4	so v	0 1-	- 00	O	10	11	7 17	14 ;	15
Sheet pile data: Test no. 42 stage IV Tschebotarioff's Princeton tests.  Moment of inertia, $I = 0.0156$ in 4  Mod. of elasticity, $E = 30,000$ ksi  Unit weight of soil: $\gamma_{stt} = 0.1284$ kcf $\gamma_{wet} = 0.110$ kcf  Angle of internal friction, $\phi = 36^{\circ}$ Mod-of-subgrade reaction, $k_s = 20$ kcf  Note: With these parameters anchor rod force computed to be 165 lb  us. 114 lb measured. $\phi$ increased silghtly due to increased soil density.  Values below use factor = 1.00.	Diet from	top, fi	0	0.5	1,0	1.5	1.67	2.0	3,0	3.5	4.0	4.5	5.0	5.704	6.056

FIGURE 10-10

(a) Data for a model sheet pile as reported by Tschebotarioff (1949b). Bending moments obtained from small-scale graph. (b) Comparison of computed and measured values of bending moment on a full-scale (field) anchored bulkhead. [Data from Matich et al. (1964).]

j .

#### Other Comments

As stated earlier, one may allow deformation of the piling and arbitrarily change the anchor-rod pull as a P-matrix entry.

The pressure diagram can be modified to reflect increased anchor-rod pull, but a problem of what earth-pressure coefficient to use will arise. The program can be easily modified to allow more than one anchor-rod location.

Nonlinear soil deformation may be allowed by removing soil springs where the deformation is too large, replacing their effect with a *P*-matrix entry, and recycling the computation, as in Chap. 5 (also in computer program).

#### 10-7 BRACED SHEETING

The problem of braced sheeting can be analyzed using the same form of solution. Referring to Fig. 10-11, we note the sequence of coding. Here the struts are the springs holding the wall in place rather than soil springs. Due to space limitation the computer program is not included.

The amount of embedment of the sheeting at the bottom of the excavation will determine whether to consider fixity, use a soil spring, or assume a free end, as at the top.

## 10-8 COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR CANTILEVERED AND ANCHORED SHEET-PILE WALLS

This program will analyze any cantilever or anchored (one anchor rod) sheet-pile wall. Provision for nonlinear soil deformation is included. Figure 10-8 illustrates the method of applying the active Coulomb earth pressure. A factor (FAC) can be applied to reduce (or increase) the pressure as

#### $q_h = FAC(Coulomb computed pressure)$

A surcharge can be applied on the backfill. The modulus-of-subgrade reaction is in the general form of  $k_s = A + Bz^n$ . The first (dredge-line) node soil spring is reduced 50 percent and the next lower node 25 percent for poor soil conditions usually encountered at these locations. The user may change these factors if desired.

If KSTOP = 0, the program computes through, then increases embedment depth 1 ft (30 cm) for anchored and 2 ft for cantilevered walls, and continues to

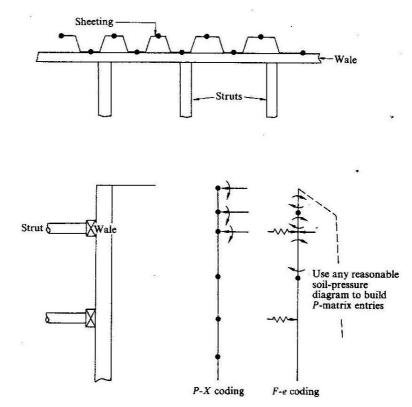


FIGURE 10-11 Finite-element analysis of braced excavation. Use as many nodes as desired; preferably use strut "springs" at a node.

recycle until the dredge-line deflections no longer increase and/or decrease. The program then checks for nonlinear soil conditions, with embedment depth again increased until the wall is stable. The program halts on one computation if KSTOP > 0. Wall computations are normally for a unit width of wall, so that the anchor-rod spring (and moment of inertia of pile) is prorated as illustrated in Example 10-3.

Increased program flexibility is obtained by reading the wall-element lengths, but those below the dredge line must all be of the same length since incrementing the embedment depth results in dividing the new depth by the number of segments below the dredge line (NBELO) on succeeding cycles.

Operation
Bookkeeping, note $ASA^{T}$ (or $E$ ) and $A$ matrix use common core
READ TITLE, UNITS (two cards)
READ  NABOV = number of nodes above dredge line; NBELO = number of nodes below dredge line; KSTOP = means of doing problem once (no depth increase); NCYCL =
number of iterations unless instability occurs
READ
HWALL = wall height above dredge line; HROD = depth to anchor rod from surface; ERN = moment of inertia of unit width of wall; ELAS = modulus of elasticity of pile; DEMB = initial embedment depth; FAC = lateral-earth-pressure reduction coefficient
READ
HWAT = depth to water surface; GSAT = saturated unit weight of backfill; GWET = wet unit weight of backfill; PHI = $\phi$ angle of backfill; SCHGE = surcharge if there is one (use 0. if none); XMAX = maximum linear soil deflection; ARODK = spring constant of anchor rod
Forms computation constants and counters and writes out critical values
Forms A matrix and writes out on first cycle
Forms S matrix in two columns
Computes Coulomb earth pressure and builds P matrix
Forms $SA^T$ matrix Forms $ASA^T$ matrix and stores in $A$ matrix
Inverts ASA <sup>T</sup> (E matrix)
Computes X matrix
Computes F matrix
Computes shear, bending moments, soil reactions at nodes and actual soil pressure on
embedded part of pile. Writes out values for checking and final design
Checks value of KSTOP  Checks deflections for embedment increment and checks nonlinear effects using XMAX
J E BOWLES CANTILEVER AND ANCHORED SHEETPILE WALL ANALYSIS PROGRAM NABOV, NBELO = NO OF SEGMENTS ABOVE & BELOW DREDGE LINE, RESPECTIVEL HROD, HWAT = DEPTH TO ANCH ROD OR WATER, FT DR M.  AS BS, EXPO PERTAIN TO MODULUS OF SUBGRADE REACTION. KCF OR T/CU M. FOR CANTILEVER SHEET-PILE WALL READ NODAR = -1 OR 0 *** UNIT WIDTH = 1 FT OR 1 METER; ** SCHGE = SURCHARGE, KSF OR TSM KSTOP USED TO COMPUTE 1-CYCLE WITHOUT TEST FOR DEEL. OR XMAX IF >1 NCYCL = NO OF ITERATIONS—STOPS PROG REGARDLESS OF STABILITY ELAS = MOD. OF ELAST K/SQ FT OR KN/SQ M ERN = MOMENT OF INERTIA FT**4 OR M*** FUI = 12. OR 100.; FU2 = 1. OR .3; FU3 = 144. OR 10.; FU4 = .0625 DIMENSION G(50), PT(50), PRESS(50), P(50), H(30), X(50), V(50) CIMENSION XMINI15), SS(50), D(50), SD(1E)(50), SD(1E)(50), SMOD(25) OIMENSION XMINI15), SS(50), D(50), SD(1E)(50), SD(1E)(50), LS(50), SMOD(25) OIMENSION XMINI15), SS(50), D(50), SD(1E)(50), SO(1E)(50), SO(1E)(

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0268
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       1 JK.GE.4.AND.ABS(XM[N(JK)).GT.XMA)GC TO 3000

GC TO 70

3000 DD 59 I = NPM1.NEND

IF(X(I-NDEL).GT.0.)GC TO 59

IF(ABS(X(I-NDEL))-XMA)59,60,60
```

#### **PROBLEMS**

- 10-1 Design a sheet-pile wall to be embedded in a soil with  $q_u = 0.4$  ksf,  $\phi = 15^\circ$ . Wall height is to be 15 ft as measured from the dredge line. Backfill is  $\gamma = 110$  pcf, e = 0.55,  $\phi = 32^\circ$ . Water level will be 5 ft below ground surface. Find the embedment depth and sheet-pile section required. Use  $F_{\gamma} = 36$  ksi for steel. State your SF and design stress.
- 10-2 Repeat Prob. 10-1 if the wall is 25 ft and water level is 5 ft below ground surface. Use an anchor rod at a spacing of 10 ft on centers. Required:

Pile section

Embedment depth

Reasonably optimum anchor-rod location

Wale section using a pair of channels back to back

10-3 Referring to Example 10-3, how can you move the pile bending moment vertically? Use the computer program and check your plan.

Problems 10-4 through 10-7 should be partial class and partial subgroup projects, where each group of three to five students program selected parts to reduce computer congestion. Certain of plots (a) to (g) may be omitted at the discretion of the instructor. Each group should submit a set of graphs and discussion of data using its output data and the output data from the other groups.

- 10-4 Make a sheet-pile study by graphing the following:
- (a) Anchor-rod location versus maximum bending moment
- (b) Anchor-rod location versus dredge-line deflection
- (c) Dredge-line deflection versus pile moment of inertia

- (d) Dredge-line deflection versus depth of embedment
- (e) Maximum soil pressure versus depth of embedment
- (f) Dredge-line deflection versus modulus-of-subgrade reaction
- (g) Maximum soil pressure versus modulus-of-subgrade reaction Make the study using:

Wall height = 18 ft

No water above dredge line

 $\gamma = 110 \text{ pcf}, \gamma_{\text{sat}} = 132.4 \text{ pcf}$ 

Embedment depth from 6 to 18 ft in increments of 3 ft

Anchor rod from 0 to 16 ft in 2-ft increments

- 10-5 Do the appropriate parts of Prob. 10-4 for no anchor rod.
- 10-6 Repeat Prob. 10-4 if wall height is 24 ft. Adjust embedment depth and increments and anchor-rod increments.
- 10-7 Repeat Prob. 10-4 if water is 6 ft below the ground surface.
- 10-8 Make a comparison of bending moment obtained for any given anchored wall holding the moment of inertia, wall height, and anchor rod constant and varying  $k_s$  (same as varying density). How does this result compare to Rowe's moment-reduction curves for sand?<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Rowe's curves may be found in Rowe (1952, p. 59); Terzaghi (1954; p. 1261); Bowles (1968, p. 396).

- ——— (1957): Sheet Pile Walls in Clay, Proc. Inst. Civ. Eng. (Lond.), vol. 7, July, pp. 629-654.
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### PILE STRESSES: WAVE EQUATION

#### 11-1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter and Chap. 12 consider two methods of evaluating pile stresses (or predicting pile performance). Dynamic stresses and performance will be evaluated, using the wave equation of the next articles. This equation can be used to determine: (1) whether the pile can be driven using the proposed pile-pile-hammer combination, (2) whether the pile will reach the desired ultimate load capacity using an estimate of the ultimate capacity based on set (blows per inch), and (3) what the values of the driving stresses (and tensile stresses in the case of concrete piles) will be. Wave-equation correlations with pile-load-test data and the limited number of piles reported in the literature instrumented for dynamic response indicate that the above claims are valid [Samson et al. (1963), Mosley (1967), Raamot (1967)].

#### 11-2 THE WAVE EQUATION

#### Historical

The impact on the end of a longitudinal rod to describe pile driving has been considered historically by several writers. For those interested in the historical development Smith (1962) and Samson et al. (1963) provide several references.

An analytical method using the wave-equation concept was proposed by Smith (1955, 1962), a mechanical engineer with Raymond International Inc. (Concrete Pile Division). Smith's method is a finite-difference solution which can be done by hand but is really practical only with a digital computer. Since the publication by Smith others have made considerable contributions to the application of this means of analysis [Samson et al. (1963), Forehand and Reese (1964), Graff (1965), Mosley (1967), Raamot (1967), Bowles (1968, 1970), Davisson (1970), Mosley and Raamot (1970), and Hirsch et al. (1970)]. The author [Bowles (1968)] included a modest program to output pile forces at corresponding time intervals as an early aid for people unfamiliar with the analytical method. The current program (included) is considerably more sophisticated.

#### The Mathematical Model and Symbols

The pile and the corresponding finite-element model is as shown in Fig. 11-1. Certain driving equipment and/or methods may require slight to major modification of this model, but these modifications are not considered here in order not to obscure the analysis.

This method replaces the differential equation describing transmission of a shock wave along the pile with a numerical (or difference) equivalent. Figure 11-2 basically describes the method.

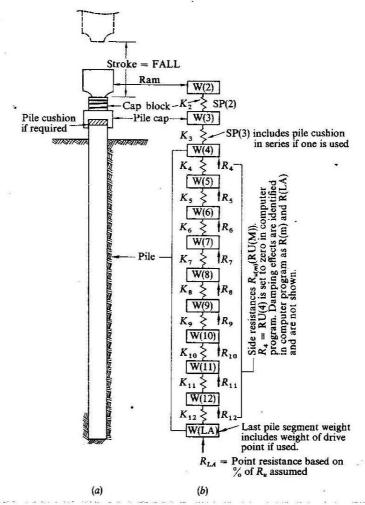
- I At the beginning of t = 1 (DT = 1)<sup>1</sup> the pile-driver ram [W(2)] impacts on the spring with an initial velocity V(2,1) or the  $v_1$  of Fig. 11-2.
- 2 This velocity V(2,1) displaces the cap-block spring SP(2) at the end of the first time interval an amount [D(2,2)] according to the equation

$$y_1 = v_1 \Delta t$$

3 This displacement produces a cap-block force [F(2,2)] computed as

$$F = Ky_1$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> These are the computer program variables as a further reader aid.



#### FIGURE 11-1

(a) Pile at approximate embedment depth. (b) The finite-difference model of a pile for the wave-equation solution. The pile-segment and spring subscripts correspond to a 12-element system (10 pile segments) as used in the included. computer program. The weight of the segment is concentrated at the bottom of the spring. Note that  $R_{L4}$  includes the side resistance of the bottommost pile element.

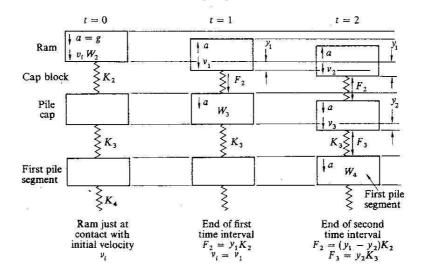


FIGURE 11-2

The wave-equation analysis examined through time increments from the instant of ram contact with the cap block to the end of two time intervals.

4 The force F(2,2) accelerates the pile cap [W(3)] downward according to

$$F = ma$$

No other event of importance occurs during this time interval.

- At the end of the next time interval (DT = 2):
  - a The cap block has moved a distance with a velocity  $v_2$  of

$$y_2 = v_2 \Delta t$$

b The pile cap has moved a distance based on the acceleration of the pile cap due to F(2,2) to obtain a velocity of

$$v_3 = at$$

and a resulting displacement [D(3,2)] of

$$y_3 = v_3 \Delta t$$

c Resulting in a new cap-block force based on the net compression of the cap block of  $y_1 - y_2$  to obtain the force as

$$F(2,2) = K_2(y_1 - y_2)$$

d And also resulting in a force F(3,2) between the pile cap and the first

pile segment based on the displacement  $y_2$  and the spring constant of the first pile segment  $K_3$  [SP(3)] as force  $F_3$  of Fig. 11-2

$$F(3,2) = K_3 y_2$$

This process is continued for all the spring elements and the point and repeated for the number of time intervals required to obtain the desired output information.

The following paragraphs will develop this method in detail. To avoid breaking the discussion the necessary symbols are grouped and identified at this point.

#### List of Symbols

The terms used in the following discussion are as follows:

A =cross-sectional area of pile, sq in (sq cm)

 $C_m$  = spring compression of element m at t = i, in (cm)

 $C'_m$  = spring compression at t = i - 1 time intervals, in (cm)

 $D_m$  = displacement of element m at t = t, in (cm)

 $D'_m$  = displacement of element m at t-1 time intervals, in (cm)

 $D_m'' = \text{displacement at } t = t - 2 \text{ time intervals, in (cm)}$ 

 $D_a$  = ground plastic displacement at t = i, in (cm)

 $D'_{q}$  = ground plastic displacement at t = t - 1 time intervals, in (cm)

E = modulus of elasticity of pile materials, ksi (kN/sq cm)

 $E_f$  = pile-hammer efficiency

 $g = \text{acceleration of gravity, in/sec}^2 (32.2 \text{ ft/sec}^2 \text{ or } 980.7 \text{ cm/sec}^2)$ 

t-1 = one time interval before current time

 $J_n =$  damping constant used with pile-point resistance, sec/ft (sec/m)

 $J_s$  = damping constant used with side resistance, sec/ft (sec/m)

 $K_m$  = pile-element spring constants including cap, cap block, cushion, etc., kips/in (kN/cm)

 $K'_m$  = soil spring constant, kips/in (kN/cm)

 $\Delta L$  = length of pile element, ft (m)

M, m = mass = weight/g (also used as element counter—note context)

Q = quake or maximum elastic ground deformation, in (cm)

T =time interval used in computations, sec

 $\ddot{u}$  = second derivation of displacement u with respect to time

 $v_m$  = velocity of element m, in/sec (cm/sec)

 $v'_m$  = velocity of element m at t = i - 1

From inspection of Fig. 11-3a, the instantaneous displacement  $D_m$  of any element is the sum of the displacement one unit of time back  $(D'_m)$  plus the product of instantaneous element velocity and time interval

$$D_m = D'_m + v_m T \tag{11-1}$$

and the net element compression (Fig. 11-3b) is computed as

$$B-C$$

or in terms of displacements (and because we compute all element displacements before computing spring compressions)

$$C_m = D_m - D_{m+1} (11-2)$$

The resulting force in the element spring  $K_m$  is simply

$$F_m = K_m C_m \tag{11-3}$$

The accelerating force  $F_{am}$  on any element m is (Fig. 11-3c)

$$-F_{m-1} + F_{am} + F_m + R_m = 0$$

or

$$F_{am} = F_{m-1} - F_m - R_m ag{11-4}$$

The velocity of element m is computed from the conventional velocity equation as

$$v = v_0 + at$$

which becomes in this case (since  $a = F_{am}/m$  or  $a = F_{am}g/W_m$ )

$$v_m = v_m' + \frac{F_{am}g}{W_m} T \tag{11-5}$$

The final general element-displacement equation can be obtained by multiplying Eq. (11-5) by T, to obtain

$$v_m T = v_m' T + \frac{F_{am} g}{W_m} T^2 \tag{a}$$

Rearranging Eq. (11-1), we find that

$$v_m T = D_m - D'_m$$

and by analogy

$$v'_m T = D'_m - D''_m$$

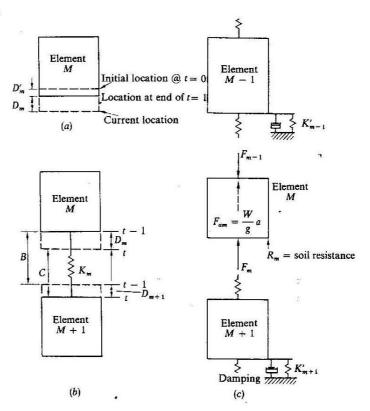


FIGURE 11-3 Element forces and displacements. The terminology closely matches that of the computer program. Note that the soil resistance is shown as  $R_m$  in c on element M whereas on element M + 1 it is shown as a soil spring and dashpot in parallel.

Therefore Eq. (a) becomes

$$D_m = 2D'_m - D''_m + \frac{F_{am}g}{W_m} T^2 \tag{11-6}$$

Now let us pause and consider the differential equation of impact of a long slender rod subjected to side resistance R, as in Fig. 11-4. The unit strain is

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

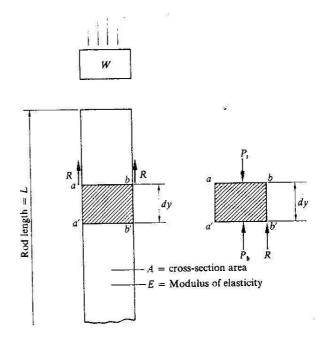


FIGURE 11-4
Transmission of strain (and stress) in a long rod tapped on one end with a moving mass.

The force is

$$P_{t} = EA\varepsilon = EA\frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

The force on the bottom of the rod element is

$$P_b = P_t - \Delta P \pm R$$

And the net force (which produces acceleration of the element) on the element of length dy is

$$P_{\rm net} = P_t - P_b \pm R$$

or

$$P_{\text{net}} = AE \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} - \left( AE \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} - AE \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} dy \right) = AE \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} dy \pm R$$

but the unbalanced force  $P_{\text{net}}$  is also

$$P_{\text{net}} = Ma = \frac{W}{g} \ddot{u} = \frac{W}{g} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}$$

Equating values of  $P_{\text{net}}$  and introducing  $\rho = W/gA dy$ , we have

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} - \frac{E}{\rho} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \pm R = 0 \tag{11-7}$$

We can express  $\partial^2 u/\partial t^2$  in finite-difference form using the first-backward-difference equation of Table 4-1 (since we cannot travel forward in time, we cannot use forward or central differences). This equation is

$$y_n'' = \frac{y_n - 2y_{n-1} + y_{n-2}}{(\Delta x)^2}$$

and converting to terminology consistent with this problem, we obtain

$$\frac{D_m - 2D_m' + D_m''}{T^2} \approx \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2} \tag{b}$$

Multiplying both sides of (b) by  $T^2$  and noting that  $(\partial^2 u/\partial t^2)T^2$  is  $F_{am}gT^2/W_m$  of Eq. (11-6), we have obtained this equation in two ways.

### 11-3 OTHER FACTORS IN SOLUTION

Let us next investigate the remaining details of obtaining the wave-equation solution. We need pile-element velocities, found from Eqs. (11-4) and (11-5), to obtain

$$v_m = v'_m + (F_{m-1} - F_m - R_m) \frac{Tg}{W_m}$$
 (11-8)

and the force  $F_m$  is from Eq. (11-3)

$$F_m = (D_m - D_{m+1})K_m \tag{c}$$

The ultimate pile resistance  $R_u$  can be distributed in some manner to the pile elements so that the sum of pile-element resistances totals R<sub>u</sub>. The distribution may be even1 (common) and based on the percentage of load estimated to be carried by side friction and point resistance. The soil "spring" constant is computed as

$$K'_{m} = \frac{R_{um}}{Q}$$

Some people are of the opinion (and the included computer program assumes) that the first in-the-ground pile segment may not have a soil resistance due to driving and other surface disturbances.

and the instantaneous pile-element resistances are computed as follows (refer to Fig. 11-5). Let the amount of soil deformation in excess of the quake Q be  $D_{sm}$ , defined as

$$D_{sm} = \pm D_m \mp Q$$

or, using the computer approach,

$$D_m - Q \le D_{sm} \le D_m + Q$$

since  $D_m$  may be either + or -. This requires using a computer subroutine [SUB-ROUTINE NO. 1 for DE(M,2)] to find  $D_{sm}$ , the plastic soil deformation.

With the plastic soil deformation evaluated, the elastic soil deformation is the total deformation less the plastic deformation, or

$$D_m - D_{sm}$$

and the resulting soil resistance (elastic) is

$$R_m = (D_m - D_{sm})K_m' \tag{d}$$

But with damping present (Fig. 11-5d) we must modify Eq. (d). This is accomplished by assuming that  $R_m$  is the sum of two resistances, elastic and damping, which can be written as

$$R_m = R_e + R_d \tag{e}$$

and assuming further that damping resistance can be written

$$R_d = R_e J_s v_m \tag{f}$$

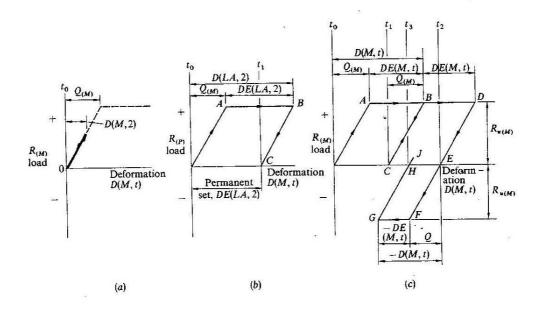
i.e., a function of the element velocity, elastic resistance, and damping factor. Combining terms, we have<sup>1</sup>

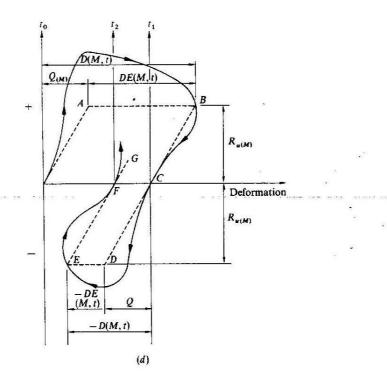
$$R_m = (D_m - D_{sm})K'_m(1 + J_s v_m)$$
(11-9)

<sup>1</sup> Note that for the pile with 100 percent point load  $K'_m = 0$  and no damping occurs according to Eq. (11-9) even if  $J_2 \neq 0$ , a situation which may require serious consideration of Eq. (11-10).

### FIGURE 11-5

Idealized development of pile-element soil resistance. Parts (a), (b), and (c) do not include damping. (a) D(M,2) < Q; element displacement is less than the quake. (b) Pile-point displacement is larger than Q, as shown. When point displacement D(LA,2) is less than Q, use (a). (c) General idealized displacement condition for the mth element. At the beginning of the record both displacement and t are zero. Displacement builds up to D(M,2); force builds up to  $R_m = QK_m'$ ; then plastic deformation [DE(M,2)] occurs; the quake is recovered from B to C at end of time increment. Next interval of time begins, and the cycle repeats as CBDE at the end of  $t_2$ . A negative element displacement is shown as occurring next, through EFGH ( $t = t_3$ ). The fourth time element starts from an initial displacement of H. (d) The general situation of (a), (b), and (c) when damping is included.





For the point (subscripts p) by analogy we have

$$R_{p} = (D_{p} - D_{sp})K_{p}'(1 + J_{p}v_{p})$$
(11-9a)

Note again that the definition of  $D_{sm}$  (and  $D_{sp}$ ) limits the elastic displacements in Eq. (11-9) to

$$D_m - D_{sm} \leq Q$$

For the point of the pile (Fig. 11-5b) it is evident that  $D_{sp}$  = permanent pile set(s), and no reversal of sign is possible, as was true of the side resistances; thus

$$D_{sp} \geq D_p - Q$$

and must be checked using a computer subroutine [SUBROUTINE NO. 2 for DE(LA,2)]. If we plot displacement versus time, the displacements  $D_{sm}$  or  $D_{sp}$  will lag  $D_m$  (or  $D_p$ ) by the amount of the quake Q.

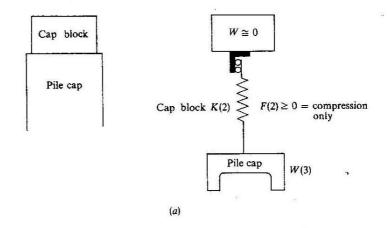
### 11-4 PILE-HEAD ATTACHMENTS

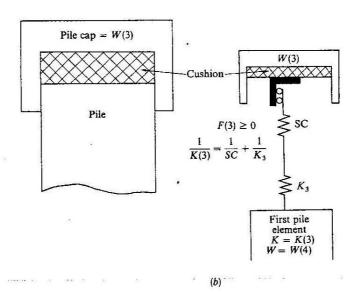
To avoid pile damage, expected both on the basis of practical experience and analytical results from the wave equation, a pile cap block is generally inserted between the ram and anvil or pile-cap assemblage. This device, which may be of wood, Micarta, Micarta and aluminum plates sandwiched, or other materials, avoids impacting the metal ram directly on a metal-pile-hammer interface, thus increasing the hammer life. This element is considered to be weightless although it may weigh as much as 100 lb (generally 20 to 40).

A pile cushion placed between the pile cap (or anvil) and the pile head, with which it is in direct contact, may be used to even out the contact surface and reduce driving stresses in the pile. The pile cushion is soft material such as wood planking 3 to 6 in thick.

Generally the cap block, pile cap (or anvil), and pile cushion rest on top of each other and are attached in such a manner that they transmit only compressive forces (a situation idealized in Fig. 11-6b).

Since the pile cap block and cushion are different materials than the ram or pile cap, we are concerned with the loss of energy on ram impact. The energy loss can be depicted by the force-displacement diagram of Fig. 11-7, where the area *DBC* is





Pile-hammer interfacing accessories. (a) Cap-block and pile-cap system for compression force only. (b) Pile-cap and pile-cushion system for compression force only. Note that both pile cap block and pile cap (or pile cushion if used) are idealized, with connections which can transmit only compression.

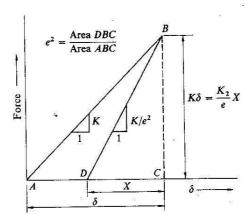


FIGURE 11-7 Pile cap-block (and pile-cushion) compression and coefficient-of-restitution characteristics.

output energy and the area ABC is input energy. From the energy equation (impulse type)

$$e(M_1v_i + M_2v_i') = M_1v_f + M_2v_f'$$

where  $M_1 = \text{mass of ram}$ 

 $M_2 = \text{mass of cap block or pile cushion} \approx 0$ 

 $v_i, v'_i = initial velocities$ 

 $(v_i = 0 \text{ for } M_2)$ ; therefore,

$$e = \frac{v_f}{v_i}$$
 and  $e^2 = \frac{{v_f}^2}{{v_i}^2}$ 

The kinetic-energy equation is

$$KE = \frac{1}{2}Mv^2$$

Therefore, it is evident that in Fig. 11-7

$$e = \frac{{v_f}^2}{{v_i}^2} = \frac{\text{area } DBC}{\text{area } ABC}$$

Referring to Fig. 11-8, which represents the force deformation of springs with restitution, we compute the cap-block and cushion spring forces as

$$F = KC_2 \tag{g}$$

until the change in compression  $(C_2 - C_2)$  between two time intervals is negative. At this time a term  $C_{\max}$  is introduced

$$C_{\text{max}} = C_2'$$

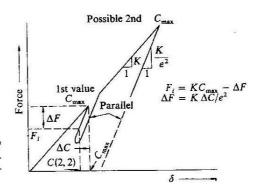


FIGURE 11-8 Force-displacement diagram for cap block (and pile cushion) with restitution. This concept is used in computer subroutine programs 3 and 4.

and the instantaneous cap-block (and/or cushion) force is computed as

$$KC_{\max} + \frac{K(C - C_{\max})}{e^2} \tag{11-10}$$

Equation (11-10) is used until  $C_2 - C_2 \ge 0$ ; then Eq. (g) is used again, the cycles being repeated as required.

### Subroutines

Computer subroutines are required for both the pile cap block [forces and deformations in cap-block spring SP(2)] and the pile cap and pile cushion [forces and deformations in spring SP(3)]. Note that when a pile cushion is used, spring SP(3) is obtained as follows:

$$\frac{1}{SP'(3)} = \frac{1}{SC} + \frac{1}{SP(3)} \tag{h}$$

This equation is obtained considering that with two springs in series, the force is the same in both springs and the total deformation is the sum of the individual spring deformations. Here SP'(3) is the equivalent spring combining the effects of the pilecushion spring SC and the computed first-pile-element spring  $SP(3) = AE/\Delta L$ .

Computer subroutines (SUBROUTINE NO. 3 and SUBROUTINE NO. 4) check that the forces in springs 2 and 3 are always zero or compression

$$F(2,2) \ge 0$$

$$F(3,2) \ge 0$$

and further check when restitution occurs as follows (using SUBROUTINE NO. 3 as an example):

I Check current compression and compression one time interval earlier as  $(C(2,1) = C'_m)$ 

$$C(2,2) - C(2,1) \ge 0$$

and as long as the difference is as shown,

$$F(2,2) = C(2,2)*SP(2)$$

2 If 
$$C(2,2) - C(2,1) < 0$$
, then

$$C(2,1) = CMAX$$

and Eq. (11-10) is used.

3 Continue using Eq. (11-10) with this value of CMAX until the situation in Eq. (a) obtains. Now use

$$F(2,2) = C(2,2)*SP(2)$$

until the spring-compression difference is again negative, etc.

- 4 Check that  $F(2,2) \ge 0$ . If F(2,2) is a tension value (-), it is set to zero for reasons previously stated.
- 5 Repeat steps 1 through 4 as required.

The wave equation requires the following computation steps:

- I Compute displacements  $D_2$  to  $D_p$  using Eq. (11-1) and using consistent units. Current values are D(M,2); previous values  $D'_m$  are D(M,1).
- 2 Compute the plastic ground displacements [DE(M,2)] using SUBROUTINE NO. 1 for elements other than pile point and using SUBROUTINE NO. 2 for the point.
- 3 Compute side and point ground resistances  $R_m$  and  $R_p$ ; note in computer program M = 4 to LA these are R(M) and R(LA).
- 4 Compute the spring compression in each spring  $C_m$  (M = 2,L) using Eq. (11-2). These are C(M,2) for current values, and the previous values  $C'_m$  are C(M,1).
- 5 Compute force  $F_2$  in spring SP(2) (the cap block) using SUBROUTINE 3 [force F(2,2)].
- 6 Compute the force  $F_3$  in spring SP(3) (the first pile segment with or without a cushion) using SUBROUTINE NO. 4 [force F(3,2)].
- 7 Compute the remainder of pile-element forces using Eq. (11-3) [F(M,2)].
- 8 Compute the velocity of each element using Eq. (11-5) in expanded form. These are V(M,2).

The computer should be programmed to stop when the following two conditions are reached:

- $1 \quad D_{sp} D'_{sp} \leq 0$  $(DE(LA,2) - DE(LA,1)) \le 0.$
- 2 All element velocities are simultaneously negative or zero.

The logic of condition 1 is based on the permanent set reaching a maximum value from which it should not decrease. Because of computer roundoff, the ≤ sign is used rather than an equality. Condition 2 ensures (by analysis) that the pile does not come out of the ground.

### 11-5 INPUT PARAMETERS

The wave equation requires certain input data. These are:

- 1 Weight of:
  - a Pile
  - Pile-cap or driving helmet (pile cap block and pile cushion generally assumed weightless)

  - d Pile tip or driving shoe (if used)
- 2 Material properties of spring constant and coefficient of restitution for:
  - a Cap block
  - b Cushion
- 3 Soil properties of:
  - a Quake
  - b Damping constants: side =  $J_s$ , point =  $J_p$
- 4 Pile properties of:
  - a Modulus of elasticity
  - b Cross-sectional area
  - c Length of pile elements and estimates of ultimate pile resistance R<sub>u</sub> and amount and distribution of side resistance (amount of R<sub>u</sub> carried by skin friction)

#### Weights

Manufacturers' catalogs can be consulted for weight data needed as input. Currently steel H-piles run from about 36 to 117 lb/ft. Pile-cap or driving helmets commonly range from 300 to 6,000 lb, depending on hammer size and pile to be driven. Ram weights vary from around 3,000 to 20,000 lb, and the pile point (if used) may range

from 50 to 500 lb. Tables in Appendixes A and B provide some useful data on piles, pile hammers, etc.

## Cap-Block and Cushion Properties

Smith (1962) and Hirsch et al. (1970) have provided data for several cushion materials. These data enable one to compute the cap block or pile-cushion spring as

$$K = \frac{AE}{L}$$

where A = cross-sectional area of cap block or cushion

L = length

E =elastic modulus from Table 11-1

# Soil Properties

The maximum amount of elastic soil deformation is the quake. Smith (1962) proposed a value of 0.1. Forehand and Reese (1964) indicated that the values should be as follows:

	Quake		Damping constant $J_p$ sec/ft sec/m		
Soil	in .	cm	sec/ft	sec/m	
Sand	0.05-0.20	0.13-0.51	0.10-0.20	0.33-0.66	
Clay	0.05-0.30	0.13-0.76	0.40-1.00	1.31-3.3	

Table 11-1 VALUES OF SECANT MODULUS OF ELASTICITY AND COEFFICIENTS OF RESTITUTION FOR SEVERAL CAP-BLOCK AND PILE-CUSHION MATERIALS\*

Material	E, ksi	E, kN/sq cm	Coefficient of restitution e
Micarta	450	310.2	0.80
Hardwood, oak	45	31.02	0.50
Asbestos disks	45	31.02	0.50
Plywood, fir	35	24.1	0.40
Pine	25	17.2	0.30
Softwood, gum	30	20.7	0.25
Steel on steel, using pipe piles			0.55
Using H-piles or concrete piles			0.50

<sup>\*</sup> Data from Smith (1962) and Hirsch et al. (1970).

The side damping constant  $J_s$  is usually taken as

$$J_s = \frac{J_p}{3}$$

Bowles (1970) illustrates that quake and damping are not very critical; thus, as long as "reasonable" values are selected, say, Q around 0.1 to 0.15 and J=0.15 to 0.30 (fps units), the computed results will be satisfactory most of the time. Obviously if the correct values are known, they should be used.

## Pile Properties and Time Increment

The modulus of elasticity E, pile cross-sectional area A, and element lengths  $\Delta L$  are needed to compute the element "spring" values as

$$K_m = \frac{AE}{\Lambda L}$$
 lb/in or kN/cm (11-11)

It is necessary to select a time increment T for use in the computations. Theoretically compression waves in an elastic material travel at a velocity of

$$v^2 = \frac{E}{\rho}$$

where  $\rho$  is the mass density (unit weight/gravity constant). Thus the time is

$$T = \frac{\Delta L}{v} = \frac{\Delta L}{\sqrt{E/\rho}}$$

which simplifies to

$$T = \sqrt{\frac{W_m}{K_m g}} \tag{11-12}$$

If the time interval is larger than this value, termed  $T_{cr}$ , the computations become unstable.1 The pile cap (or helmet) and the first pile element (with a cushion) may have a different T than the pile segments; therefore, T in general should be somewhat less than  $T_{cr}$ . If T is too small, it takes many iterations to complete the computations. Smith (1962) proposed using

$$T \approx \frac{T_{\rm cr}}{2}$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Generally determined by getting an overflow-error message on the computer.

and recommended in general that

	$\Delta L$				
Pile material	ft	m	T, sec		
Steel	8–10	2.4-3.1	1 4000		
Concrete	8-10	2.4-3.1	4000		
Wood	<b>8-10</b>	2.4-3.1	3000		

The author recommends  $T_{\rm cr}/2 < T < T_{\rm cr}$  as a compromise value.

One should be aware that if the correct value of T for the system is used, the minimum number of iterations is obtained; if T is too big, the computations diverge; if it is too small, it will take many iterations. One must use a constant time interval since a variable time interval to match each element produces a rapid convergence but the results do not inspire confidence. One should try to use a time interval that will give results in 35 to 60 iterations.

Work by the author and also by Samson et al. (1963) indicates that the solution is only very slightly sensitive to T if the value is less than  $T_{\rm cr}$  and well within the accuracy of the rest of the problem.

Pile-segment length is not too critical. Generally the lengths should be kept to between 5 to 10 ft (2 to  $3\frac{1}{2}$  m). Too few elements may not yield the desired computational accuracy, but more than 10 to 12 segments do not improve the accuracy (an exception being a very long pile, where more than 12 segments may be required). Note, however, that a short pile with, say, 10 segments (small  $\Delta L$ ) may be troublesome due to increased sensitivity to T. For example, using a 30-ft concrete pile and 10 pile segments 3 ft in length requires the time interval T to be between 0.00023 and 0.00033 sec for a solution and uses many iterations. Much easier and just as satisfactory is the solution obtained using five 6-ft pile segments.

#### **Initial Velocity**

The displacement of the first element requires an initial velocity [V(M,1)] in computer program computed from the kinetic-energy equation

$$\frac{1}{2}Mv^2 = E_f \times \text{ram energy}$$

or

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{E_f \times \text{ rated ram energy} \times 2g}{\text{weight of ram}}}$$

which further simplifies (as in computer program) to

$$v = \sqrt{2g(E_f) \times \text{ht of fall}}$$
 (11-13)

and requires the programmer to determine the height (or equivalent height) of ram fall if it is not given in the manufacturer's data sheets. Typical pile-hammer efficiencies are given in Table 11-2.

# 11-6 GENERAL APPLICATION OF THE WAVE EQUATION

The wave equation can be adapted to any pile configuration and impact driving method.

### PIPE PILES

Without mandrel Obtain area and estimate total and segment weights, and total length and weight of point if driven closed-end. Manufacturers' catalogs can be consulted for pile-cap (or follower) weight. The approximate cap-block area can be estimated and its spring constant computed. A pile cushion is generally not used.

With mandrel Treat the mandrel as the pile but increase the weight for the pipe shell.

H-piles Treat like pipe pile. A pile cushion is generally not used because of pipe-cap (or follower) configuration.

Wood piles Same as H-piles.

Concrete piles Same as pipe or H-piles, but generally a pile cushion (wooden blocks) is placed between the pile cap and concrete to reduce driving stresses and prevent spalling.

Step-taper piles Piles are mandrel-driven. Mandrel has collars to fit onto the shoulders formed at step locations of pile sections. Treat as for pipe piles; i.e., mandrel is analyzed as pile. Segment weights include the contribution of pile shell segment. Springs, however, are obtained using average mandrel cross section (not at shoulder) within the segments. It is not necessary to modify the side resistance as

$$R_n = f(\text{diam})$$

as computed results are within data accuracy using either procedure.

Table 11-2 PILE-HAMMER EFFICIENCIES\*

Efficiency	
0.75-0.85	
0.70-0.80	
0.85 - 1.00	

Values are for hammers in good condition and ideal operating conditions.

Tapered piles Same as pipe piles if driven without a mandrel except area and weight are not constant from segment to segment. With a mandrel, treat as a step-tapered pile. Again it is not necessary to treat

$$R_u = f \text{ (diam)}$$

### Effect of Soil Parameters

Soil parameters are not very critical in the wave-equation solution. The soil-parameter effect is approximately as follows (with the percent of load applied to the pile point held constant). The usual range of quake values of 0.1 to 0.3 will make maximum computed pile forces vary by not over 1 to 2 percent [see Bowles (1970)]. Increasing quake by 100 percent may decrease the set as much as 8 to 15 percent.

Damping constant  $J_p$  (and using  $J_s = J_p/3$ ) will vary the maximum computed pile forces on the order of 1 to 2 percent for reasonable variations in  $J_p$ .

Varying the percent of load applied to the pile point influences both the maximum pile forces and the maximum point set (holding Q constant). The percent increase in maximum pile force for percent of  $R_u$  on the point is as follows:

Ru on point, %	Change in segment force, %
0–75	15–20
75–100	45–55

taking in both cases the base force at 0 percent  $R_u$  on the point. The pronounced effect on the maximum pile forces at 100 percent point load is actually due to the complete assumed loss of side resistance and damping. Probably very few practical pile problems should be analyzed as 100 percent point bearing when driven through any soil.

Pile set depends heavily on the assumed ultimate pile resistance  $R_u$  and the assumed percent point resistance. Varying the percent of point load from 0 to 75 percent can vary the set 50 to 100 percent; i.e., reducing the set to one-half the value at 0 percent point load is a 100 percent reduction. Increasing  $R_u$  also reduces the set; i.e., doubling  $R_u$  will reduce the set as much as 95 to 100 percent.

### Plot of Ultimate Load versus Set in Blows per Inch

A feature of the wave equation is that one can make a plot of  $R_u$  versus 1/s (vary  $R_u$  from say 50 to 500 kips and obtain s at these loads). Mosley (1967) and Hirsch et al. (1970) present several load tests versus wave-equation analysis and consistently the

wave equation predicts ultimate pile capacity within ±25 percent. This curve may be used to obtain another very useful bit of information. It is well known that piles may increase in ultimate resistance after driving has stopped. When splicing piles in the field this problem requires that the operation does not take too long. The phenomenon is termed freezing. Sometimes a pile loses resistance after driving halts, termed relaxation. This can be detected by redriving (also retapping) the pile and recording the new set obtained, which is then plotted on the curve (see Fig. 11-9). As an approximation the new ultimate resistance is the 1/s intercept on the curve projected to the load ordinate.

Incidentally, if the coordinate points  $(R_u, 1/s)$  do not plot a reasonably smooth curve, an instability of some type exists (pile-hammer combination, time increment, or pile-cap spring, etc.).

It should be evident that one may try several input soil parameters, plot the resulting curves of R<sub>u</sub> versus set (blows per inch), then plot the load-test value. That curve closest to the load test can be taken as the job curve.

## Plot of Driving Stress versus Set in Blows per Inch

For a given  $R_{\mu}$  one can obtain the driving stresses by selecting enough point set values and the corresponding maximum pile-element forces; this means of course that one must run the curve through the origin and that for part of the analysis no point displacements DE(LA,i) occur. The maximum element force occurring prior to the point having a displacement value (as it usually does) simply fixes the asymptote of the curve.

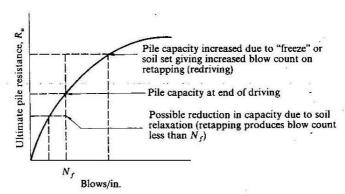


FIGURE 11-9 Using the wave-equation curve of R<sub>u</sub> versus blows per inch to evaluate the increase or decrease in pile capacity at some elapsed time after driving the pile to a set of  $N_f$  blows per inch.

# Negative Forces

It has long been recognized that tension forces sometimes exist in piles during driving. The wave equation is the only method so far available for analyzing the values quantitatively. Tensile (or negative) forces can be important when driving concrete piles. Tensile forces appear in driving friction (percent on point < 100) piles and may be present in driving point-bearing piles if the ultimate resistance and pile-hammer combination is critical. The computer program is set to reenter the computation loop to check negative forces, although so far the author has found that when the velocities are all negative and the program exits the first time, the largest negative force has generally already occurred. These negative forces may compute rather large. The negative forces do not, however, depend on the time increment (T = DT) selected for the computation.

# Driving Point-Bearing Piles

Piles driven to refusal can be analyzed for driving stresses but may require an estimation until a pile is driven to evaluate the probable value of set. One can then try various large values of quake, say  $\geq 0.5$ , to compute a compatible set. The quake yielding the best set fit is used for the analysis.

# Other Input Parameters

The wave equation is rather sensitive to initial ram velocity. It is not very sensitive to the cap-block spring; i.e., doubling the spring value can increase the set 1 to 10 percent depending on  $R_u$ . A typical example with  $R_u = 620$  kN and 25 percent  $R_u$  on point (other data of Example 11-3) gives the following:

Cap-block spring, kN/cm	s, cm	F <sub>max</sub> , kN
3,500	1.87	1,581.2
7,000	1.88	1,609.3

The solution is not very sensitive to pile cross-sectional area (reflected in pile-segment springs); however, the weight does influence the problem considerably. This is illustrated [see also Mosley (1967)] in the examples plotted later, where a mandrel-driven step-taper pile (on the order of 200 lb/ft with mandrel) displays as much as

100 percent increase in load capacity for the same set (in blows per inch) over light pipe-pile sections.

### Workability of Pile-Hammer Combinations

The wave equation will rapidly show whether a given system is satisfactory or not. Obviously when input of the desired  $R_u$  results in segment forces that are too large for the material, either the pile or hammer must be changed. Likewise, if the permanent set is zero to very small (the result is 1/s being very large) when the desired  $R_u$  is used as input, the hammer is too small or the pile is too heavy. If the computations blow up, it is a signal that all is not well with one of these input parameters or DT.

### **Gravity Effects**

Smith (1962) indicated that gravity effects can be included in the computations. Samson et al. (1963) indicate the method of including gravity on a study which concludes that gravity effects are negligible.

## Internal Damping

Smith also indicated that one might include internal damping by modification of Eq. (11-3) to read

$$F = C_m K_m + B K_m \frac{C_m - C'_m}{\Delta t} \qquad (11-14)$$

Smith further suggested that B should be a small value such as 0.00016 to 0.00025. Since no data currently exist, the value of B is at present an estimation.

Since damping disappears when  $D_m - D_{sm} = 0$  in Eqs. (11-9) and (11-9a), it was also recommended to consider the use of

$$R_m = (D_m - D_{sm})K'_m + J'K'_m Q v_m$$
 (11-15)

$$R_{p} = (D_{p} - D_{sp})K_{p}' + JK_{p}Qv_{p}$$
 (11-16)

after  $D_m - D_{sm}$  or  $D_p - D_{sp}$  first equals Q. This would require additional subroutines. The loss of damping effect is the primary cause of the large increase in the computed internal segment forces obtained when 100 percent of  $R_u$  is carried by the pile point. To avoid this loss of damping and still be realistic, few piles should be analyzed as 100 percent point-bearing.

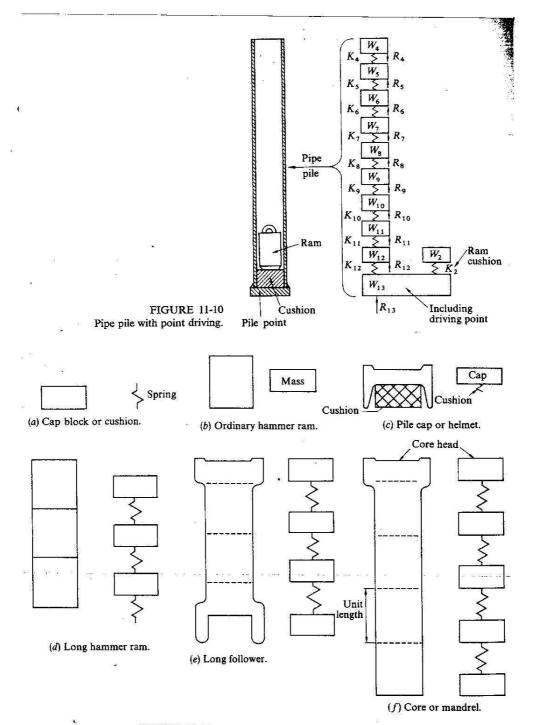


FIGURE 11-11

Method of modeling various types of driving equipment for use in the wave equation. For the mandrel find the average area of the drive stem to compute springs; add the shell weight to the mandrel to obtain element weights and treat the mandrel as a pile.

# Driving Methods and Systems

Point driving is illustrated in Fig. 11-10, from which it is evident that the computer program requires modification, as the spring force in  $K_2$  is in general

$$F(2) = K(2)(D(2,2) - D(LA,2))$$

likewise spring  $K_{12}$  is stretched rather than compressed, as the pile will be dragged down.

Other possibilities of driving systems are shown in Fig. 11-11. The designer must make necessary modifications in the computer program to take care of these systems, but the use of a mandrel does not require program modification. Treat the mandrel as the pile and estimate its shaft cross section if not accurately known for computing the pile-segment springs. To obtain segment weights add the mandrel to the shell weight.

# 11-7 WAVE-EQUATION EXAMPLES

EXAMPLE 11-1 Plot a curve of  $R_u$  versus set and driving stresses versus set for  $R_u = 200$  kips for the pipe pile shown [pile B given in Mosley (1967)]; refer to Fig. E11-1.1. Use the following input data:

```
10 pile segments at 8 ft (NELEM = 10 + 2 = 12, ELEML = 8.0)
Use linear variation of R_u (JJS = 0)
Vary R_u (NCHECK = 3)
Not all element forces needed (IFWRIT = 0)
Constant pile section (PILTYP = 1.)
Wall thickness of pipe pile = 0.25 in (use either 0. or 0.25)
Negative forces not needed (COMFM = 0)
Ram weight = 6.5 \text{ kips } [W(2)]; pile cap = 0.925 \text{ kips}
Ram fall = 3 ft (FALL); hammer efficiency = 0.8 (EFF)
Weight of drive point = 0.0 lb (DRIVPT); time interval = 0.00025 sec (DT)
J_s = 0.05 \text{ sec/ft (SJ)}; J_p = 0.15 \text{ sec/ft (PJ)}
Pile cushion = 0.0 (SC)
Modulus of elasticity of pile = 30,000.0 ksi (EMOD)
e \text{ cap block} = 0.80 \text{ (EPCB)}; e \text{ pile cushion} = 1.00 \text{ (EPC)}
Weight of pile per foot = 0.0338 kips (WFT)
Pile cross section = 9.817 sq in (AREA)
Q = 0.10 in (Q); %R_u on point = 0.25% (PER) pile driven open-end
 R_n = 100 to 400 kips (RUTOT)
 Spring constant of cap block = 4,500 kips/in [SP (2)]
```

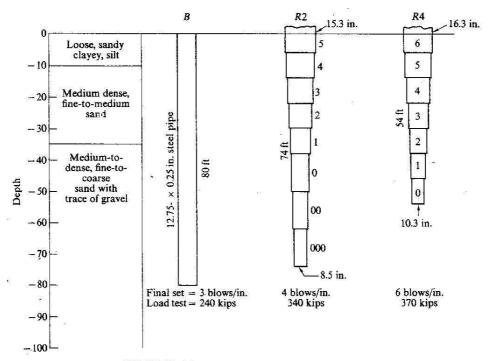


FIGURE E11-1.1 Pile profiles. Pile B is used in Example 11-1; pile R4 is used in Example 11-2. [Mosely (1967).]

### SOLUTION Data cards are as follows:

Card	Data
1	TITLE
	UTI-UT7
2	FT IN KIPS KIPS/IN KIPS/SQ IN FT/SEC SQ IN FUI-FU3
3	12. 144. 32.2
4	12. 144. 32.2
	Could use $t_{wall} = 0.25$ in
5	6.5 .925 3.00 .80 0.0 .00025
5 6 7 8 9	.050 .150 0.00
7	30000.00 .80 1.00
8	.0338 9.817
9	.100
10	.25
11	100, 4500,
12	200. 4500. NCKECH = 3 recycles to 5150 to read cards 12 to 16
Ţ	
16	400. 4500.

Computer output is as follows (maximum force occurred in first pile segment in all cases):

Ru, kips	$F_{\max}$ , kips	Average set s, in	1/s	No. of iterations I	
100	269.0	0.914	1.09	117	
150 *	271.7	0.620	1.61	81	
200	274.3	0.388	2.58	68	
250	276.9	0.198	5.05	63	
275	284.3	0.121	8.26	60	
300	296.3	0.052	19.2	59	
325	308.2	0.009	111.1	57	
350				> 150	

The plot of ultimate resistance  $R_u$  versus blows per inch is shown in Fig. E11-1.2. For  $R_u = 200$  kips the following additional output and computations are made:

T	s, in	$F_{\max}$ , kips	Blows/in	σ, ksi
1	0	274.3*	- · ·	27.94
5	0.025	241.5	40	24.60
9	0.103	227.6	9.7	23.2
9	0.179	223.8	5.6	22,8
7	0.280	191.0	3.6	19.5
4	0.339	186.3	2.9	19.0
4	0.388*	165.7	2.6	16.9
			00.000	

\* Maximum.

$$\sigma = \frac{274.3}{9.817} = 27.94 \text{ ksi}$$

A plot of  $\sigma$  versus blows per inch is shown in Fig. E11-1.3.

1111

EXAMPLE 11-2 Plot a curve of  $R_u$  versus set (blows per inch) for pile R4 (refer to Fig. E11-1.1).

Use the following input data for R4:

7 pile segments at 8 ft (56 versus 54 ft actually in system)

Ram 6,500 lb; height of fall = 3.00 ft; Efficiency = 0.80

 $J_s = 0.05 \text{ sec/ft}; J_p = 0.15 \text{ sec/ft}; Q = 0.10 \text{ in}$ 

Pile cap block = 14,000 kips/in; e = 0.80

No cushion,  $\Delta t = 0.00025$  sec

Drive point estimated at 100 lb; % of  $R_u$  on point = 50%

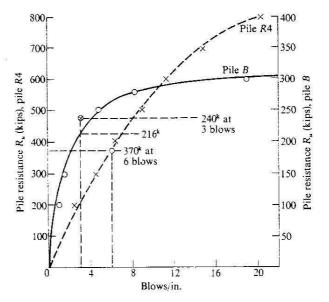


FIGURE E11-1.2 Plot of  $R_u$  versus blows per inch. Pile B is from Example 11-1; pile R4 is from Example 11-2. Field load-test data also plotted. Note about 10 percent error for pile B and apparent correct wave-equation model for pile R4.

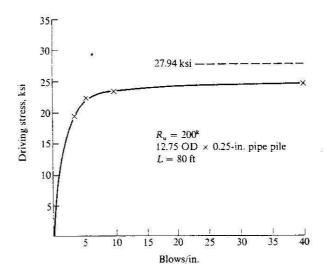


FIGURE E11-1.3 Plot of set versus driving stresses for  $R_{\alpha}=200$  kips, percent point = 0.25. Other data in Example 11-1.

SOLUTION The pile consists of step-taper sections numbers 0 to 6 at 1-in increase per section (see Tables B-6a and B-6b in Appendix B).

$$0 = 10.375$$
 in

1 = 11.375 in

6 = 16.375 in

An inspection of core weights indicates 13,000 lb for this system, which will be taken as 1,290 lb per foot of shaft and 210 lb concentrated at the shoulders where sections join (inspection of appendix tables indicates that the weight of the core section is 1,500 lb). The pile weight per foot is the weight of the mandrel section divided by 8.0 plus shell

Weight per ft = 
$$\frac{1500}{8}$$
 = 187.50 lb  
+ shell =  $\frac{10.00}{197.50}$  lb

The pile cap weighs 13,000 - 7(1,500) = 2,500 lb. The computed cross-sectional area is 197.5(144)/490 = 58.05 sq in. The load-test value is 370 kips; final field resistance is 6 blows per inch. For these input data the following output is obtained (plotted on Fig. E11-1.2):

$R_u$ , kips	1/s	s, in	I	F <sub>max</sub> (element 4),* kips
200	2.64	0.3782	78	1,086.0
300	4.69	0.2132	53	1,064.0
400	6.67	0.1500	40	1,065.2
500	9.12	0.1097	36	1,066,4
600	11.49	0.087	31	1,067.6
700	15.04	0.0665	29	1,068.8
800	20.49	0.0488	27	1,070

<sup>\*</sup> These large values are primarily in the core (or mandrel).

EXAMPLE 11-3 Analyze a  $30 \times 30$  cm  $\times 24$  m concrete pile for the effect of the pile cushion on compression and tension driving stresses. Use only two pile-cushion values. Use a British 7b hammer. Use metric UNITS card (equivalent to those used in Example 11-1) and FU1 = 100., FU2 = 10000., and FU3 = 9.807. Input data:

Ram wt = 29.90 kN; fall = 1.37 m; E = 0.75

Pile cap = 5.34 kN; pile cap block = 3,500 kN/cm; e = 0.80

Pile cushion = 1,051 and 2,101 kN/cm

e for both cushions = 0.50

```
E_c=2,896 kN/sq cm; element length = 2.4 m J_s=0.164 sec/m; J_p=0.492 sec/m; Q=0.254 cm Pile weight per meter = 2.101 kN/m; driving point = 0.0 kN \Delta t=0.000333 sec
```

SOLUTION Varying the percent of  $R_u$  on point and the pile-cushion spring (SC), we have the following typical values:

PER	I	$F_{\mathrm{max}}$	DT	s, cm	$F_{\min}$	DT	Element no.
		Spring	cushion =	1,051 kN/cm	$R_u = 620 \text{ k}$	N	
0	96	1,614.2	32	2.08	-870.5	54	11
0.25	95	1,581.2	31	1.87	-662.1	60	8
0.50	94	1,550.5	31	1.76	-483.2	60	8
0.75	81	1,528.8	33	1.66	-314.1	67	5
1.00	80	1,534.0	33	1.59	-277.1	67	5
<b></b>		Spring	cushion =	2,101 kN/cm	$R_{\rm u} = 620 \text{ k}$	N	
0 -	124	1,921.3	26	2.48	-1,238.1	55	9
0.25	113	1,877.4	25	2.09	-905.1	54	9
0.50	95	1,863.3	30	1.83	-631.1	57	8
0.75	91	1,862.9	30	1.72	-464.6	64	4
1.00	90	1,865.8	32	1.62	-421.6	64	4

These data indicate that decreasing the pile cushion (SC) by one-half reduces the negative (tension) stresses from 30 to 50 percent depending on the percent of  $R_u$  applied to the pile point. The effect on the compressive stresses is considerably less.

# 11-8 WAVE-EQUATION COMPUTER PROGRAM

This program will compute segment weights and spring constants for constant-section-piles of any shape. It will also compute properties (average) for round tapered (hollow or solid) piles and allow reading individual segment areas and weights for stepped piles. Several problems or parameters can be studied through use of a computed GO TO statement via use of NCHECK. Output may be pile-segment forces at each time interval, as well as point displacements and maximum forces in a segment at each time interval. Also given is the maximum force ever obtained in any pile segment and, as a check, the last force and element velocity computation. For concrete piles the program will obtain the maximum negative (tension) force if specified via use of COMFM. This program automatically excludes the soil-side resistance on the first pile segment regardless of segment length unless read when JJS > 0.

Program scans the point set values [DE(M,2)] for the five largest values unless values differ by more than 0.005 unit, sums the values, and divides by the number of values used. Average set value and the number of values used are printed for convenience in plotting the curve of 1/s versus  $R_u$ . This program will solve problems in either fps or metric units, as specified by the user through data cards UT1-UT7 and FU1-FU3. Refer to Examples 11-1 and 11-3 for card entry values.

Line	Operation
3	READ TITLE, UT1-UT7 (use two cards)
7	READ FUI, FU2, FU3
8	READ (4I5, 4F10.2)
	NELEM = number of elements including ram and cap; JJS = 0 to compute linear distribution of RU on sides of pile segments; JJS = 1 if READ distribution of RU on the sides of pile segments; NCHECK = counter in computed GO TO statement; 1 = vary Q other data to Q = constant; 2 = vary point load % of RU; 3 = vary RU; 4 = change all problem data including TITLE; 5 = stop after 1 run IFWRIT = control to write element forces; 0 = does not write; ≥1 = writes element forces for each time interval in groups of 7
	PILTYP = pile type; >0 = constant-area section; 0 = read area and weight of each
	pile segment; <0 = compute average area and weight of each pile segment ELEML = length of pile segments, feet or meters; TWALL = wall thickness of pipe piles; use 0.00 if PILTYP ≥ 0; use radius if program computes area of solid round piles
	COMFM = switch to compute negative (tension) element forces; 0 = negative forces
	not required; >0 = maximum tension force obtained
10	READ (6F10.3)
10	W(2) = ram weight, kips or kilonewtons; W(3) = pile-cap weight, kips or kilonewtons; FALL = ram fall, feet or meters; EFF = hammer efficiency; DRIVPT = weight of drive point, kips or kilonewtons; DT = time interval, seconds
12	READ (6F10.4) leave card blank for spaces not used
	$SJ = J_s$ , $sec/ft$ or $sec/m$ ; $PJ = J_p$ , $sec/ft$ or $sec/m$ ; $SC = spring$ constant pile cushion,
	kips/in or kN/cm
13	READ (6F10.3)
	EMOD = $E$ pile, ksi or kN/sq cm; EPCB = coefficient of restitution cap block;
	EPC = coefficient of restitution cushion
17	Checks pile type (PILTYP)
18	READ (6F10.4) constant-section piles
	WFT = weight per unit length of pile, kips or kilonewtons; AREA = cross-sectional
20	area of pile, sq in or sq cm
22	READ (6F10.3) read element weights and areas of each pile segment
24	READ (6F10.3)
	DIAT = top outside diameter of pile, inches or centimeters; DIAB = bottom diam-
	eter of pile, inches or centimeters; UNITWT = unit weight of pile material, kcf or
05.04	kN/cu m
25-34	Computes tapered-pile properties including spring constants
36-41	Computes spring constants for all piles and element weights of constant-section piles
43 <u>44</u> 50	Computes modified spring constant for first pile segment if a pile cushion used
	READ Q (loop for NCHECK = 1) 0 = quake, inches or centimeters
52 54	READ PER (loop for NCHECK = 2) PER = % RU on pile point
34	READ (loop for NCHECK = 3)  RUTOT = assumed ultimate pile resistance, kips or kilonewtons; SP(2) = spring
	constant cap block, kips/in or kN/cm
71-73	Computes side resistances excluding first pile segment

```
Line
            Operation
            READ (IF JJS > 0) Read I, RU(I) at four values per card if other than linear variation
     75
            of RUTOT is assumed for side resistance
     81
            Computes soil spring constants FK(M)
  80-99
            Initializes variables F, V, R, C, D and sets counters
    100
            Begins DO loop for computing element forces, velocities, etc.
103-104
            Computes element displacements
108-150
            SUBROUTINE NO. 1 through 4
153--155
            Computes pile element forces [F(M,2)]
            Stores computed forces for writing [B(M,KL)]
    155
159-172
            Checks negative (tension) forces to stop computations
173-177
            Finds largest segment force, location, and time interval of occurrence
196-204
            Writes element forces if required
205-217
            Computes new element velocities; checks if all negative; checks current pile point set
            against value retained from last time interval
218-223
            Redefines all variables from subscripts (M,2) to subscripts (M,1)
    225
            End of iteration loop
226-234
            Finds up to five largest point set values to average for the pile set for that R_u value
234-268
            Writes various data
    269
            GO TO statement activated by NCHECK
```

```
C JEBOWLES WAVE EQUATION FOR PILE RESPONSE TO IMPACT TYPE DRIVING C PILE MAY BE STRAIGHT.TAPERED. STEPPED OR H—SECTIONS TO PILE MAY BE STRAIGHT.TAPERED. STEPPED OR H—SECTION TO PILE MAY BE STRAIGHT.TAPERED. STEPPED OR H—SECTION TO PILE MAY BE STAIGHT.TAPERED. STEPPED OR H—SECTION TO PILE MAY BE STAIGHT.TAPERED. STEPPED OR HAD BE STAIGHT.TAPERED
```

```
IF(Q.LE.O.)GO TO SOOO

5100 READ(1,501)PER TO SOOO

5150 READ(1,501)PER TO SOOO

5150 READ(1,501)RUTO(1,5P(2))

1F(RUTOT)150,5000,6000

6000 WRITE(3,300)PER TO FER TO FER TO FER TO FER TO FEE TO FEE
                                                                 0062
0064
  0068
0069
0070
0071
0072
0073
0074
    0091
0092
0093
0093
0094
0097
0098
    0099
0100
0101
0102
    0103
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    0108
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0156
    0157
0158
0159
01661
01662
01663
01665
01667
01668
0167
01772
```

```
0216 | IF(ILSUM+I-LA).LT.0]GO TO 54
0216 | OTTO TELLA | O
```

# **PROBLEMS**

- 11-1 Verify the partial output of Examples 11-1 to 11-3.
- 11-2 Vary the input parameters and make a set-versus- $R_u$  curve for pile R2 (Fig. E11-1.1) to fit the load test shown.
- 11-3 Redraw the curve for pile B shown on Fig. E11-1.2 for percent of  $R_u$  on the point of 0.0, 0.50, and 0.75; is a better fit to load test obtained? Plot a curve of set versus driving stress for each percent for  $R_u = 200$  kips.
- 11-4 Repeat Fig. E11-1.3 for  $R_u = 100$  kips.

- 11-5 Repeat Fig. E11-1.3 for percent of  $R_u = 0.0, 0.25, 0.75, \text{ and } 1.00 \text{ and } R_u = 890 \text{ kN}.$
- 11-6 Make a study of the effect of the spring constant of the pile cap block [SP(2)] on driving a pile.
- 11-7 A 12.5-in square prestressed concrete pile 48 ft long is driven with a Raymond 65CH pile hammer (same as Example 11-1). A Micarta-aluminum cap block is used. Final driving set is 27 blows per foot; load test is 400 kips. Make a curve of set versus  $R_{\mu}$  to fit the driving data.
- 11-8 A 10.75 OD  $\times$  0.25 wall pipe pile is driven 61 ft using the same hammer system as Prob. 11-7. Final driving set is 10 blows per foot; load test = 280 kips. Convert data to metric units and make a curve of set versus  $R_{\rm u}$ .
- 11-9 A 36-in OD  $\times$  5-ft wall prestressed concrete pile 80 ft long is driven 62 ft into the ground (remainder is freestanding, partly in water). The lower 4 ft of pipe is filled with concrete as a driving point. The pile is driven with a Raymond 5/0 hammer (fall = 3.25 ft; ram = 17,500 lb). Final driving set = 30 blows per inch, and load test = 1,330 kips. Make a curve of set versus  $R_{\rm u}$ . Assume a cap block of Micarta with an area of 3 sq ft and 9 in long.
- 11-10 Repeat Prob. 11-9 using equivalent metric units.
- 11-11 A 14BP74 with a length of 24 m is driven with a DE30 hammer to point bearing on rock. No cushion is used, but a Micarta cap block of K = 4,380 kN/cm is used. Assuming 20 blows for 6-cm set, make a curve of set versus  $R_u$  and estimate  $R_u$ . If the working load is 6.205 kN/sq cm and the yield point of steel is 26.577 kN/sq cm, is this system satisfactory? 11-12 For Prob. 11-8, what are the smallest and largest commercially available hammers

which can be used to drive the pile? Use the hammers listed in Appendix A.

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PILE STRESSES: STATIC LOADING

# 12-1 PILE-SOIL INTERACTION

Chapter 11 was concerned with pile stresses from dynamic (driving) loads. This chapter is concerned with the evaluation of pile stresses and deformations under static and/or working loads. This method of analysis can be used for partially or fully embedded piles, with or without a batter. While this method of analysis was not developed to solve the flagpole, signpost, or other partially embedded piles, it can be used for this class of problem.

The part of a pile embedded in the ground will carry part of the vertical load by shear transfer along the pile shaft to the adjacent soil, and the remainder of the load will be carried by the point. Field tests by many researchers [e.g., Tavenas (1971), Vesić (1970), Sherman (1969), D'Appolonia and Romualdi (1963), Mohan et al.

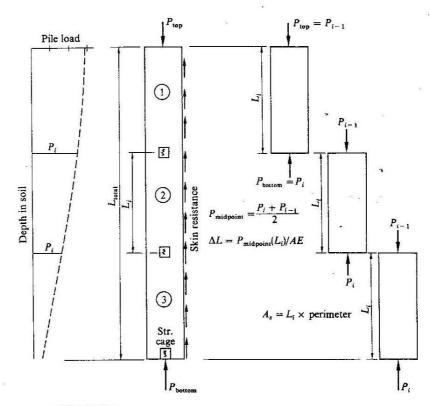


FIGURE 12-1 Pile with load variation with depth, showing use of finite elements of length  $L_t$ and loads  $P_i$ ,  $P_{i-1}$  to evaluate the skin resistance of soil on the element.

(1963), Seed and Reese (1957)] have verified this as the in situ state and regardless of whether the pile is a point-bearing or friction pile.

The load transfer to the soil via skin resistance (refer to Fig. 12-1) is computed as

$$\tau_{\rm av} = \frac{P_{\rm top} - P_{\rm bot}}{\text{perimeter} \times L_i} \tag{a}$$

Load tests with instrumentation to measure pile shaft load, usually through strain gages or accumulated deformation with rods to the ground surface, indicate that the average shear resistance across an increment of shaft (element of length Li) can be related to the element deflection [DEFL(I)] as

$$\tau \Big|_{i-1}^{i} = \frac{\Delta P}{A_s} = \left( \int_{0}^{L_t} \varepsilon \, dL + \text{point deflection} \right) C \tag{b}$$

and

$$\varepsilon = \frac{P_{\text{midpoint}}}{AE} \tag{c}$$

 $\Delta P$  is the change in pile forces  $(P_{i-1}, P_i)$  at the ends of an element with a surface area of  $A_s$  and length  $L_i$ . The strain  $\varepsilon$  is computed from the pile load at the middle of the segment  $(P_{\text{midpoint}})$ , and AE is the pile-shaft cross section and modulus of elasticity. It is possible that neither the element force nor the point deflection is linear. The load-transfer curves shown in this chapter of actual pile load tests indicate that in general load transfer is nonlinear. The C term of Eq. (b) is a compression constant (analogous to the A' constant used in Chap. 13).

Actual soil shear-transfer characteristics at a site can be obtained by instrumenting a pile for a load test to measure the strain  $\varepsilon$  at various points along the pile shaft. The strain is related to the load carried by the pile at that point; thus, the load carried by the soil between adjacent instrumented points can be found. The load is related to shear strength  $\tau$  through Eq. (b). A plot of  $\tau$  (or load transfer) versus deformation (or strain) can now be made, as in Fig. 12-2c or d.

Coyle and Reese (1966) proposed a set of curves of deformation versus load-transfer—shear-strength ratio (Fig. 12-3) based on the analysis of pile responses over a very wide geographic area to be used in conjunction with the measured shear strength of the soil at the given site. The curves of Fig. 12-3 should be used only after their local validity has been established or when no better data are available.

The response of the pile point is more difficult to evaluate than the side resistance. We may, however:

- 1 Treat the pile point as a bearing-capacity problem and estimate point resistance and movements.
- 2 Treat the point resistance as a spring, using the coefficient-of-subgrade reaction concept, apply to the point all the pile load not carried in shear, and estimate the point deflection.
- 3 Apply a percent of the total load to the point.
- 4 In the case of open pipe piles actually measure the point deflection at various loads. In the case of H- or other solid piles plot the rebound curve and estimate the point deflection under various loads.

The method of analysis used in this chapter incorporates steps 2 and 3.

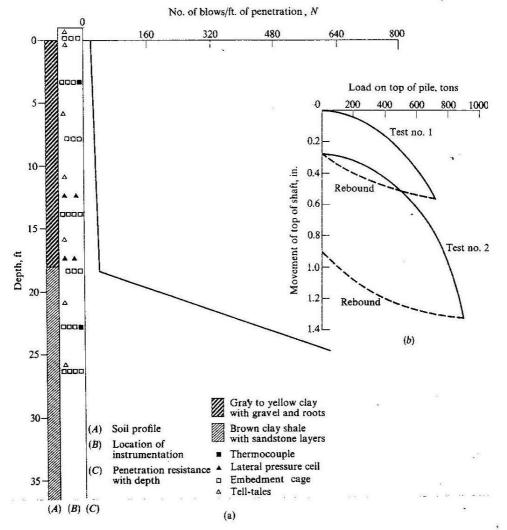


FIGURE 12-2 Pile-load-test data from Reese et al. (1969) (note that tons used here are 2,000 lb). (a) soil profile, blow count, and pile-instrumentation locations; (b) load-settlement curves for two tests; (c) load-transfer curves for two tests; (d) plot of load in pile shaft versus depth to obtain the data to plot (c).

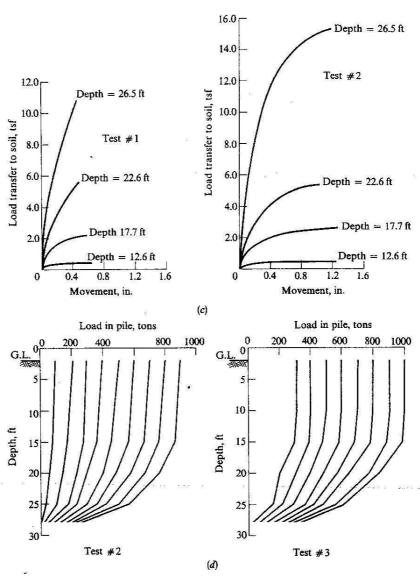


FIGURE 12-2 (Continued)

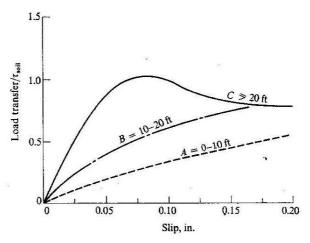


FIGURE 12-3 Approximate ratio of load transfer-soil shear strength versus pile slip. With the ratio and the actual soil shear strength known, one can compute the shear resistance on the element or load transfer. [After Coyle and Reese (1966).]

## 12-2 MATRIX SOLUTION OF THE PROBLEM

The following matrix solution is a completely general solution for any two-dimensional pile loading with three degrees of freedom. The method is applicable to both vertical and batter piles as long as the batter is in the plane of loading. The pile may be fully or partially embedded.

Two modes of failure of a pile are possible, namely, buckling (which is not considered here) and the failure when the combined stresses of compression and bending cause a material rupture. The combined-stress condition can be examined with this computer program including the increased bending stresses due to gravity loads as lateral displacement of partially embedded piles occurs (commonly termed the PA effect in tall-building analysis). In passing, it may be noted that the lateralpile solution of Chap. 9 is a special case of this method of solution.

Referring to Fig. 12-4, we divide a pile into a number of segments (10 are generally sufficient for fully embedded piles) of any length. We set up a local coordinate system for the ith element to obtain the local A and S matrices as follows:

The  $SA^T$  and  $ASA^T$  matrix is then computer-generated for each element in turn. The final (sometimes termed global)  $ASA^T$  matrix is the sum of the member (or local)  $ASA^T$  matrix values of common PX subscripts. For example (Fig. 12-4), the final  $ASA^T$  values for  $P_4X_4$  includes the sums of the values  $P_4X_4$  for the first element and the values found at  $P_4X_4$  for the second element. Likewise

$$P_8X_8|_{\text{final}} = P_8X_8|_{\text{element 2}} + P_8X_8|_{\text{element 3}}$$

As in previous chapters, the following matrix equations are solved

$$P = AF$$

$$e = BX = A^{T}X$$

$$F = Se$$

$$X = [ASA^{T}]^{-1}P$$

$$F = SA^{T}X$$

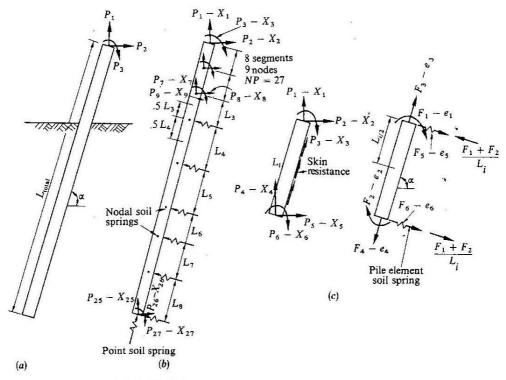


FIGURE 12-4

Pile divided into finite elements and the coding used in the analysis: (a) actual pile; (b) analytical model; (c) element PX and Fe coding. Note, however, that output spring forces if positive will act on element of (c) in the direction opposite that shown. The element springs actually represent element contribution to nodes.

Several features appear in this solution, however, which have not occurred previously.

1 After inverting the  $ASA^{T}$  to obtain a solution of X (displacements) as  $X = [ASA^T]^{-1}P$ , we must ensure compatibility of the axial components of X and the load-transfer characteristics of the soil. To do this we must read in enough load-transfer curves to describe the actual system load transfer; compute  $X_i$  and the corresponding pile-segment movements with respect to the soil; use the curves to obtain load-transfer values; re-form the P matrix; and recompute  $X_i$ . This is cycled as many times as necessary until the desired convergence of measured to computed pile slip is obtained.

2 From Fig. 12-4 it can be seen that X(1), X(2) of node 1 relate to axial deformation of the top half of the first element, whereas the X's of node 2 relate to the deformation in the lower half of the first element plus the deformation of the top half of the second pile element. This concept is continued to the point where it is also evident that the point X's [X(NP-2), X(NP-1)] represent the axial deformation of the bottom half of the bottom pile segment. To effect the nodal deformations in this sequence, it is necessary to modify the element S matrix [ES(3,3) and ES(4,4)] appropriately when building the  $ASA^T$  matrix. It is also necessary to recognize this deformation sequence to compute the pile-element movements for load transfer. In the computer program this is accomplished by dividing S(3,3) and S(4,4) by terms F1 or F2 (also F3). These terms are 1 at end nodes and for interior nodes are computed as follows. Let the ratio of two adjacent pile segments at any node be defined by dividing the smaller segment length into the larger to obtain<sup>1</sup>

$$RATIO = \frac{LMAX}{LMIN}$$

Next define a sum square term (SUMSQ) as

$$SUMSQ = (1 + RATIO)^2$$

Now

$$FI = SUMSQ$$
  $F2 = \frac{SUMSQ}{RATIO}$ 

Obviously this operation must be performed on both ends of interior pile segments to complete the  $ASA^T$  matrix adjustment.

3 The element movements are obtained starting with the bottom element (NM), which moves as follows:

$$\Delta(NM) = \text{point movement} + X(NP - 3) \sin \alpha + X(NP - 2) \cos \alpha$$

$$+ \frac{L(NM)}{L(NM) + L(NM - 1)} X(NP - 5) \sin \alpha$$

$$+ \frac{L(NM)}{L(NM) + L(NM - 1)} X(NP - 4) \cos \alpha$$

A similar computation is made for each element, using the deformation of the previous lower element and the additional element deformations. The ratio

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Using computer program notation.

 $L_i/(L_i + L_{i-1})$  is used to obtain that part of the total nodal movement applicable to the element under consideration. The axial deformation for any node is based on 2AE/L of the adjacent elements. This problem also arose in building the  $ASA^T$  matrix in step 2.

4 The kth element deflection or relative pile-soil movement is

Deflection = total element movement = point deflection + 
$$\sum_{i=NM}^{i=NM-k} \epsilon L_i$$

and this value is used to enter the appropriate curve of deflection versus shear resistance to find the amount of the pile load carried by shear along that element length. This friction component is

Friction load = 
$$(L_k)(\tau)$$
 × perimeter of pile

The element friction load is used to revise the P matrix at each node in turn down the pile from top to bottom, and the inverted ASAT matrix is used again to compute new X values and recycled until the current and preceding slip values meet some required specification (say, ≤0.002).

5 When the X values have been found to the required degree of computational precision, these values are used together with the element  $SA^T$  (which in the computer program is recomputed to save storage) to obtain the element forces as

$$F_i = (SA^T)_i X$$

Again, because of the method of problem formulation and definition of the X values, the S matrix must be adjusted to obtain compatibility.

6 Precautions must be taken to avoid tensile forces in the pile subjected to compressive loads if the pile is too long and too much friction or shear resistance<sup>1</sup> is available from the soil. The computer program avoids this by zeroing the P matrix if there is more shear resistance available in a pile segment than is needed to carry the nodal force at the top of that segment (for either a tension or compression pile).

## 12-3 PROBLEM CHECKING

In complex problems like this it is important to make an adequate number of checks. Parts of the problem output can be readily checked as follows (refer also to examples):

1 Moments F(1) and F(2) of adjacent elements must be equal and opposite in sign.

<sup>1</sup> Also skin resistance.

- 2 Axial forces F(3) of element i + 1 and F(4) of element i must be equal and opposite in sign.
- 3 Lateral soil springs F(5) and F(6) must be added at interior nodes to obtain the "nodal" spring. Also note that the nodal (joint) effect is opposite in sign to the element effect.
- 4  $\sum M = 0$  of element 1 at the lower end, and  $\sum M = 0$  of entire pile. At other points  $\sum M$  must include all the pile elements to that point to be zero and must include nodal soil spring effects (not element spring effects).
- $5 \sum F_H = 0$ ,  $\sum F_v = 0$  for entire pile and must include skin-resistance effect. In general, the three equations of static equilibrium are satisfied for each node but not for the individual pile segments.
- 6 A special case of this solution is the laterally loaded pile of Chap. 9. One can check part of the problem by computing the lateral pile by both methods. The answers should check, and the nodal springs of step 3 above should check with those of the lateral pile. The first soil node spring will, of course, depend on both programs' using the same reduction factor (currently 50 percent in Chap. 9 and here).

## 12-4 THE PA EFFECT

This method can allow for the  $P\Delta$  effect in partially embedded piles, i.e., the increase in bending due to lateral deflection. Since  $X_2$  is the translation of the top of the pile, one can obtain a revised  $P_3$  down the pile to the joint where embedment takes place as

$$P_{(3i)} = P_{3(i)} - P_1(X2_1 - X2_i)$$

This value of  $P_3$  in the P matrix can be used to recompute  $X_i$  until the current and last values of  $X_2$  are

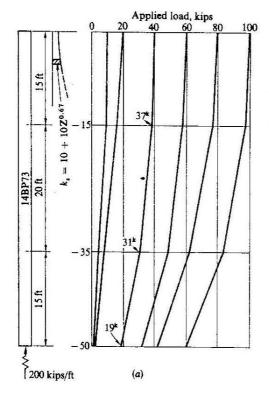
$$X_i|_i^n \le X_{i-1}|_i^n \le \text{accuracy required}$$

The computation for the  $P\Delta$  effect can be made in the computer program if NDELT  $\geq$  1. Note that this is applied only up to the joint where soil begins since the  $P\Delta$  effect becomes somewhat indeterminate from that point onward.

## 12-5 EXAMPLES

This method of analysis of pile stresses will be illustrated by several examples.

EXAMPLE 12-1 Use the pile-soil system shown in Figs. 12-5 and E12-1.1 with three



Shear transfer for 40 kip load  $\triangle$  Point = 19/200 = 0.095 ft  $\triangle$  Elem. = (40 + 37)(15)/2(645000)=  $0.90 \times 10^{-3}$  ft Total slip = 0.095 + 0.0009 ft = 1.15 in  $\tau = (40 - 37)/15(4.7) = 0.043 \text{ ksf}$ (1st 15ft)

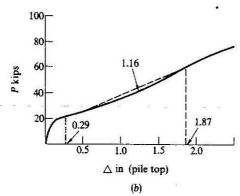


FIGURE 12-5 Load-transfer data, pile and soil profile, and plot of pile-top-deformation versus load (for use in Chap. 13). (a) Load-transfer curves. (b) Computed pile-response curve.

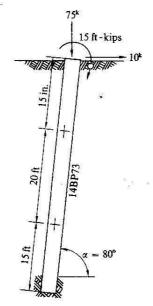


FIGURE E12-1.1

pile segments. Give a complete computer output and show checks to illustrate the method. Data for 14BP73:

$$I_{x-x} = 733.1 \text{ in}^4$$
 Area = 21.5 sq in

Perimeter = 
$$\frac{2(13.64 + 14.586)}{12}$$
 = 4.70 ft

Width = 
$$14.586$$
 in  $E = 30,000$  ksi

$$L = 50 \text{ ft}$$
  $\alpha = 80^{\circ}$ 

SOLUTION With three segments

$$NP = (3 + 1)3 = 12$$

The  $P\Delta$  effect will not be considered; therefore, NDELT = 0. Three loads are used; NNZP = 3. The load is given, not computed by the computer; therefore,

IPRD = 1. Only one computer run is to be made for this pile: NLC = 0 or 1. The soil starts at joint 1: JTSOIL = 1. No pile nodes require separately read-in soil springs: JJS = 0. The point spring (POINTK) is assumed at 200 kips/ft.

For the given load no percent of pile load is assumed to be carried by the point (if some is, the computer will make the determination). Thus, PERPP = 0. A point deflection is estimated from the load-transfer curves:

## POINTX = 0.19 ft

We want a complete computer listing, LIST = 1. Also eight load-transfer data points are used; NSTRPT = 8. We can now assemble the input cards:

Card	Data								
1	TITLE	(see firs	t line of com	puter out	put)				
2	UNITS			* · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	• /				
		M NN	ZP NC IPI						
3	12 3 E	PIL P	3 1 OINTK A	0 REAP	1 ALPHA	0 PERPP	0 1 POINTX	8 XMAX	1
4	30000.	50. 5	00. 21	1.46	30.	0,	19	2.50	
5-7	I P(T)	)							
	1 - 7	5.						150	
	10,00	0.							
		5.							
8	AS B		$0  (k_s = a \cdot$	$+ bz^n$				50	
		0.67			*				
9			er of segmen	its for firs	st set of l	oad-trans	fer data		
10			ight points)						
11			es (eight poi		Transfer New				
1.6520			ter output fo						1142
12		J) Numb	er of segmen	its for sec	ond set	of load-tra	ınsfer data		542
13	X								
14	Y		198			V 19	2		
15		J) Numb	er of segmen	its for thi	rd set of	load-tran	sfer data		t to great t
16	X								1.5
17	Y	=							20
18–20	XL(I)	XIN(I)	BMEM(I)	PER(I)	AREA	(I)			
	15.	733.1	14.586	4.70	21.46				
	20.	733.1	14.586	4.70	21.46		1.25		
	15.	733.1	14.586	4.70	21.46				

These 20 cards make up input; the output from the computer sheets is shown in Fig. E12-1.2 (pages 402-404).

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3-SEQ. USE	LENGIH 1880 FT 3.0 PE 2.1 PE	10.002**0.670 K		FOLLOWING CUR.	1.15300 0.06400	FOLLOWING CURVE	OF ELEMENT	NP6 AL	MAC SO II		35-7-7-86 59015-7-7-86 59015-7-7-7-7-7-7-7-7-7-7-7-7-7-7-7-7-7-7-7
12-1 USE	PIL ODE K/FI DEFL = 0 LOAD = 0 DICE POINTS	+	3 8488 46	FOR 0.125	S FDR FD 0.12400 0.08500	S FOR 0.121	ON E =	NP4 NP5	.000 .373 .274 .502	15	2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 200
	30C0C.C00 K/SQ IN 2005. 10111A 2005. ASSUMED PCINI XX PUINT DEFL TO RE	10.0	P-MATRIX 15.000 10.000	PILE ELEMENTS 0.04300 0.02000	PILE ELEMENT 0.06700 0.06000	PILE ELEMENT 0.05100 0.05700	STR CURVES	NP2 SSS S	MODULUS AT 10.	RIX	145889.33 42559.33 44586.33 44586.33 14586.33 16
J E BOWLES	OINT SPRING OINT SPRING AS MAX POINT	SOIL MODULUS	THE INITIAL 75	NC OF P	NC OF P	NO OF 0.0	OF SHEAR	MEMNC NP1	NODE SCIL	THE ASAT MAT	1458427.31 14588.232 105.327 707.837 707.837 707.837 700.000 0000
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THE X-MATRIX FOR CYCLE 1 IS 0.009673 4 -0.001229 5 0.006971 1 0.000483 8 -0.002738 9 -0.000820 10 -0.0016160 11 C.000908	12 0.004264
ELEM NG TOT ELEM DISP,FT ELEM MOVE,FT ELEM SLIP, IN PTDE 0.000000 2.256000 -0.18800 -0.000000 2.256000 -0.188000 -0.000000 2.256000	PTDEF1 =-0.1880000 FT
PRINT CCUNTERS USED TO RECCMPUTE P-MATRIX NEC(12)= 1 xC(JJ,12)=1,995600 XC(JJ+1,12) =2.54200	
JJJ= 1 JJ= 5 [2= 1	3.031 KIPS
JUJ= 104= 5 12= 2 KEC= 2 CURRENT VALUE PAXIS(3) = -56.932 KIPS ELEM. FRIC =	12.161 KIPS
CURRENI VALUE PAXIS(1) = -69,093 KIPS NEC[12)= 1 XC[JJ,12]=1,93100 XC[JJ+1,12) =2.53500	
CURRENT VALUE PAXIS( 4) = -38.668 KIPS ELEM. FRIC = CURRENT VALUE PAXIS(1) = -56.932 KIPS	18.263 KIPS
THE POINT DEFL DUE TO -37.6000 KIPS IS -0.1880000 FT	
NM SLIP, IN SHEAR, K/SQ FT P-MATRIX IN 3-COLS 15.000 2 2.256063 0.12937 4 -56.067 5 -11.998 6 0.0 2 2.256000 0.25906 10 -38.081 11 -6.715 12 0.0	
FIGURE B12-1.2	

Partial computer output for Example 12-1.

6 0.004264 12 0.000040	PTDEF1 =-0.1933402 FT	3.031 KIPS 13.162 KFPS 18.751 KIPS	
0.006645		.54200 FRIC = .54600 FRIC = .53500 FRIC =	
22	Z	E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E E	<b>J</b>
-0.003075	ELEM SLIP, IN 2.356868 2.335421	XC(1)+1,12) XC(1)+1,12) XC(1)+1,12) XC(1)+1,12) XC(1)+1,12) XC(1)+1,12) XC(1)+1,12)	-0.1933402 F
15 9 -0.009673 4	ELEM MOVE, FT -0.001642 -0.001954 -0.001112	C RECOMPUTE P-HAPTING STATE ST	-38.6680 KIPS IS -0.1933402 FT
THE X-MATRIX FOR CYCLE 2 IS 1 -0.021915 2 0.119458 3 0.009673 4 -0.003075 5 0.006645 6 0.004264 7 -0.001038 8 -0.003006 9 -0.000820 10 -0.000602 11 0.0006827 12 0.0000406	ELEM NO TOT ELEM DISP,FT 2 -0,198048 3 -0,196465 3 -0,194452	PRINT COUNTERS USED TO RECOMPUTE P-MATRIX  JJ= 2.54200  JJ= 2.54200  JJ= 2.54200  JJ= 2.54200  CURRENT VALUE PAXIS(2) = -69.093 KIPS ELEF. FRIC = CURRENT VALUE PAXIS(1) = 3 = -69.093 KIPS ELEF. FRIC = CURRENT VALUE PAXIS(1) = 3 = -69.093 KIPS ELEF. FRIC = -60.093 KIPS ELEF. FRI	THE POINT DEFL DUE TO -3

FIGURE E12-1.2 (Continued)

Partial checking of computer output is as follows (refer to Fig. E12-1.3 and note application of element spring effects):

Deflection of element 1 = 2.331 in

Therefore, interpolation of load-transfer data is

$$\tau = 0.043 \text{ ksf}$$
 $P_{ax} = 75 \sin 80^{\circ} - 10 \cos 80^{\circ}$ 
 $= 72.19 \text{ kips}$ 

$$P_{\text{ax}}$$
 at base = 72.19 - 0.043(15)(4.7)  
= 69.16 kips

$$\sum M$$
 base = ? clockwise = positive  
- $M_b$  + 15 + 75(15)(0.17365) + 10(15)(0.98481)  
- 15(17.528) = 0

$$M_b = 95.18 \text{ ft-kips}$$
 95.15 computer

For entire pile (Fig. E12-1.4) and using data from computer output:

Shear transfer = 
$$3.03 + 12.71 + 18.45 = 34.19$$
 kips

Point = 
$$72.19 - 34.19 = 38.00 (37.91)$$

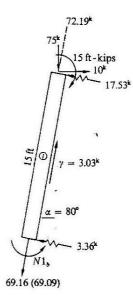
$$H$$
 component = 72.19 (0.17365) = 12.54

$$+ P_2 = 10.00$$
Total  $H = 22.54$ 

Resisting 
$$H = (17.53 + 28.50 + 1.17 - 6.80)(0.9841) = 22.52 \text{ kips}$$

$$\sum M$$
 pile = ?

$$75(50)(0.17365) + 50(10)(0.98481) - 50(17.53)$$
  
-  $35(10.97) + 15(6.80) \approx 0$ 



## FIGURE E12-1.3

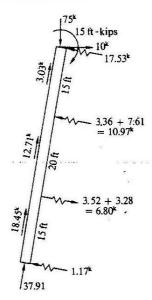


FIGURE E12-1.4

EXAMPLE 12-2 Make a curve of load versus deflection for use in the pile group analysis of Chap. 13 for a 14BP73. The applicable data are in Fig. 12-5 and Example 12-1 except that  $\alpha = 90^{\circ}$ . Note that if this problem is correctly modeled, the resulting plot will coincide with the field load test.

SOLUTION We will use 10 segments, NP = 33. With one load [P(1)] NNZP = 1. We will increment six loads from -10 to -80 kips; therefore, NLC = 6. As not all output is desired, LIST = 0.

NEC(JJ) = 3 three segments in top 15 ft of pile

NEC(JJ) = 4 four segments in middle 20 ft of pile

NEC(JJ) = 3 three segments in lower 15 ft of pile

A typical member data card contains:

		500 000 0000 00000 00000	1800 10 1418	-
5.	733.1	14.586	4.70	21.5
		25050	2000 X (1) 2000	20000

The partial output for P(1) = -20 kips is plotted in Fig. 12-5b. Figure E12-2.1 (pages 407-408) shows the partial computer input.

EXAMPLE 12-3 Compare the  $P\Delta$  effect on a vertical and batter pile as shown in Fig. 12-6 and use metric units. For this example, we will assume a reasonable soil modulus but read in very large spring values for the first two soil nodes to control the ground-line slope and deflection. The pile is a 14BP73; see Example 12-1 for pile data. The batter is with respect to the strong axis. We will use two shear-transfer curves, one with NEC(JJ) = 5 and all Y = 0 to take care of 25 ft of pile above ground, and the second with NEC(JJ) = 10 for below-ground load-transfer data. Obviously the below-ground shear-transfer data could be such that more curves would be needed. See the partial computer output for values used.

## SOLUTION

 $NP = 16 \times 3 = 48 \qquad NLC = 1$   $NM = 15 \qquad JTSOIL = 6$   $NNZP = 2 \qquad NDELT = 1 \text{ (second run is 0)}$   $NC = 2 \qquad RSPR(6,1) = 999999999. = RSPR(6,2)$   $IPRD = 1 \qquad LIST = 1 \text{ (not all output for this problem is shown in text)}$  NSTRPT = 8

FIGURE E12-2.1 Partial computer input. Note that P(1) is initially -10 kips but output shown after four iterations is for P(1) = -20 kips.

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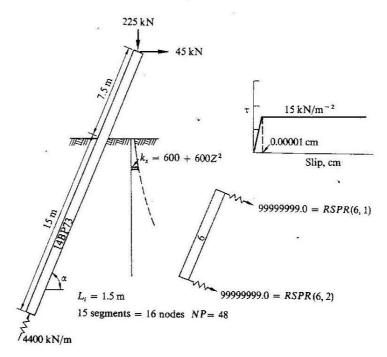


FIGURE 12-6 Pile-soil conditions for Example 12-3.

Other data are straightforward with

 $ALPHA = 80 \text{ and } 90^{\circ}$ 

Partial output (see also Fig. E12-3.1, pages 410-412) follows:

Without	$P\Delta$		With ₽∆			
α, deg	$\Delta_{\text{top}}$ , cm	M <sub>max(6)</sub> , kN-m	$\Delta_{\text{top}}$ , cm	M <sub>max</sub> , kN-m	Moment w/P-Δ, %	
90	11.9	-337.5	14.8	370.8	9.9	
80	21.7	<b>-625</b>	26.9	685.7	9.7	

# Checking:

For vertical pile ( $\alpha = 90^{\circ}$ )

 $M_6$  should be  $45 \times 7.5 = 337.5$  kN-m checks output

 $M_6$  with  $P\Delta$  effect included should be 337.5 + 0.14812(225) = 370.8

					E	Σ	62	A 50 CM	######################################
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FIGURE B12-3.1a Input data for partially embedded vertical pile.

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Joint moments due to P
$$\Delta$$
 = 225[(0.1481 - 0.1073)  
+ (0.1073 - 0.0690)  
+ (0.0690 - 0.0362)  
+ (0.0362 - 0.0121)  
+ (0.0121 - 0)]

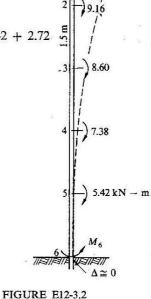
= 9.16 + 8.60 + 7.38 + 5.42 + 2.72

Note that these moments accumulate from node to node down the pile in applying corrections to the output, therefore, obtaining the accumulated sum and subtracting from  $M_6$  given in output, we have

$$M_6 = 453.50 - 9.16 - 17.76 - 25.14 - 30.56$$
  
= 370.9 (\approx 370.8)

For the battered pile with the  $P\Delta$  effect

$$M_6 = 45(7.5)(0.9841) = 332.13$$
  
+ 225(7.5)(0.17365) = 293.03  
+ 225(0.269) =  $\frac{60.52}{685.68}$ 



The output corrected for accumulated node moments is

$$836.1 - 16.68 - 32.08 - 45.47 - 55.33 = 686.55 \approx 685.68$$

EXAMPLE 12-4 Using the data shown in Fig. 12-7, compute a curve of load versus deflection and compare to the field load test. Plot data directly on Fig. 12-7b. The pile is a 6-in-OD pipe with a cross section of 1.4 sq in of metal and a point area of 0.196 sq ft.

SOLUTION It was necessary to write a small computer program to convert the load in the pile to shear versus slip data. It was also necessary to estimate the point K, or spring value, the point load from Fig. 12-7b, and the resulting point deflection which must be added to each element-deflection value to obtain total slip for an element.

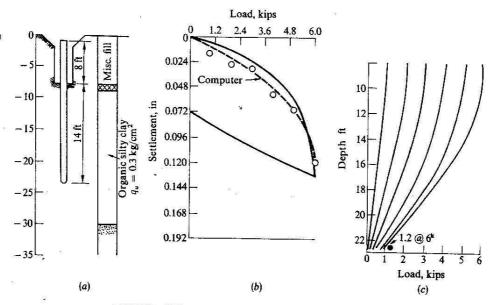


FIGURE 12-7
Pile-load-test data used in Example 12-4. (a) Soil-pile system. (b) Load-settlement curve with computer output for Example 12-4 added. (c) Load-transfer curves. Load-settlement curve of (b) is for test 7 given in reference. [Seed and Reese (1957).]

Pile load-depth data were read from the curve at even 2-ft increments. The program computed the average force in the pile element. Loads at 8, 10, 16 ft as obtained from the reference graphs are as follows (other data are on first page of computer output):

Depth, ft	Load=1	2	3	4.1	5.1	6 kips	
8	1	2	3	4,1	5.1	6	
10	0.930	1.93	2.87	3.9	5.0	5,9	
16	0.567	1.29	2.0	2.78	3.74	4.3	

The output of the deflection-shear computer program was punched onto cards in 8F10.7 format to use directly as input in the computer program.

The soil modulus at the pile point is estimated as follows:

$$q_{\rm ult} = q_{\rm u} + qN_q$$

$$q_{\rm ult} = 300 + 1.8(670)(1)(0.75)$$
 using a 25% depth reduction and  $\gamma = 1.8$  g/cu cm 
$$= 300 + 6,030 = 9,345 \text{ g/sq cm}$$
 
$$k_s = \frac{9.345}{2.54} = 3.68 \text{ kg/cu cm} = 230 \text{ kips/cu ft}$$
 
$$K = A_p k_s = 0.196(230) = 45 \text{ kips/ft}$$
 use 50 kips/ft

After several sets of computations it appeared (due to load testing the pile several times) that K should be about 225 kips/ft. From Fig. 12-7b the point forces and resulting point deflections based on the computed K of 225 ft/kips are approximately

P, kips	$P_{\rm bot}$ , kips	$\Delta$ , ft		
0	0	0		
1	0.10	0.00044		
2	0.25	0.00111		
3	0.50	0.00222		
4.1	0.75	0.00333		
5.1	0.95	0.00422		
6.0	1.2	0.00530		

The  $\Delta$ 's are converted to inches for building-shear-versus-slip curves and are used with a minus sign and units of feet as POINTX in the pile program to obtain computed slip.

The shear-slip program was adjusted to obtain  $\tau$  at slip = 0 and for one point beyond the 6.1-kip load to avoid having the computer search for undefined values. This is shown in the partial computer listing (Fig. E12-4.1), which includes the load-transfer curves.

The first pages of input, as well as output, for the 2-kip load are shown. The computed data are superimposed on Fig. 12-7b for comparison of computed versus measured response. It should be evident to the reader that modeling this pile is difficult due both to the small loads and deflections. Actual numerical deflection differences are small, however (0.018 versus 0.027 in computed at 2 kips), and the computed point loads match the values from the graph very well (250 versus 408 lb computed for 2-kip load).

The output could possibly be improved, but the validity of the method and the computer-program possibilities have been demonstrated. Any soil-parameter improvements are left as an exercise for the reader.

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EXAMPLE 1	00 K/SQ IN 225. TIAL POINT UMED POINT SO INT SO	5.0	P-MATRIX	PILE ELEMENT 0.10000	0.00584 0.01592	11.E ELEMENT 0.00581 0.01592	C.00577 0.03183	0.00571 0.03183	1LE ELEPENT 0.00559	1LE ELEMENT 0.00547 0.04775	1.E ELEMENT 0.00538	STR CURVES
E BOWLES	SPRI	L MODULUS	INITIAL	0.0 0.0	NO CF PI 0.0 0.01592	NO OF P1	NG OF P	NC OF P	NG OF P	NO OF P	NC OF P	OF SHEAR
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FIGURE E12-4.1 Problem input for 1-kip and partial output for the 2-kip pile load.

## 12-6 COMPUTER PROGRAM

This computer program will compute for either vertical or battered piles any of the following as specified by the user:

- I Pile ultimate load capacity and response, i.e., deflection-rotation effect and pile element forces, given a point deflection (POINTX < 0), or percent of load carried on the point (PERPP > 0), or for a friction pile. For these latter operations, IPRD = 0.
- 2 Pile load response for a given load (IPRD > 0).
- 3 Load-response curves (as in Example 12-2) if NLC > 0.
- 4 Response of partially embedded piles (with or Without batter).
- 5 Pile may be tapered, round, square, or H-piles, and changes in moment of inertia or segment length can be accommodated from element to element.
- 6 Any number of shear-transfer curves can be used. They must be read in order from top to bottom with instructions to the computer (NEC) of the number of pile elements to be used for a set of curve data.
- 7 Any reasonable variation of soil modulus with depth can be used.

Any number of elements can be used by changing the DIMENSION statements; an  $ASA^T$  matrix of size 33  $\times$  33 is required for 10 elements.

This program may oscillate (1) if the pile is too long (overdesigned) for the given load when the load is fixed (IPRD > 0) or (2) if pile loads are small and POINTX is specified unless the convergence criterion is relaxed. Convergence can be improved by making a trial run, observing the point deflection, then rerunning the problem with a revised POINTX value. In general, one must use plots of load versus depth to obtain load-transfer curves, as a simple made-up problem may not converge. If the load-transfer curves are

$$\tau = 0$$
 at slip = 0

as obtained when using load-test data which include a point-deflection value, the program will compute only a minimum pile load; this will be analytically correct but physically incorrect for friction piles unless a reasonably correct value of POINTX is used.

In general, 8 to 10 pile segments should be used, but the segments do not have to be equal in length. This feature makes it very easy to model stratified soils and piles of varying moment of inertia or different materials.

The program is currently set for seven iterations (JJJ) and for a SLIP convergence of 0.02. For a given problem, these criteria may or may not be adequate.

It should be evident that if the computed load-response curve does not plot reasonably well onto the actual load-test curve, the pile-soil system has not been correctly modeled. One must vary one or more parameters, point spring, point load, etc., until the load-response curves match.

One may allow for nonlinear point deflections using XMAX. The program currently reduces the point spring 25 percent when the computed point deflection exceeds XMAX. This reduction must be reflected initially in the load-transfer curves.

Example 12-3 illustrates that pile bending moments in the output may require correcting for the fixed-end moments (which for this particular class of problem is a cumulative effect) and not simply subtracting the fixed-end-moment value at that node from the computed moment, as is commonly done for most structural-analysis problems.

#### Line Operation

DIMENSION

READ TETLE, UT1-UT8

READ (1ZI5)

NP = number of P's (10 elements NP = 33); NM = number of elements; NNZP = number of nonzero P's in P matrix to be read; NC = number of load-transfer curves; IPRD = switch if pile loads are known (activated if >0); NLC = switch to vary pile loads externally (activated if >0); JTSOIL = joint (or node) soil starts (use 1 if fully embedded); NDELT = switch to include  $P\Delta$  effect on partially embedded piles (use 1 to include effect or 0 if not included); JJS = number of nodes where soil springs are read from cards; LIST = listing of all computations if LIST > 1; otherwise lists only P and X matrix of each cycle; NSTRPT = number of points on shear-transfer curves to enable the user to program the curve data [punch them on cards in 8F10.7 FORMAT and use directly as input with NEC(JJ) inserted as required]; IU = specification for fps (1) or metric units (2)

READ (8F10.4) E = modulus of elasticity, ksi (kg/sq cm); PIL = pile length, feet (meters); POINTK = point spring constant, kips/ft (kN/m); AREAP = area of pile point, sq in (sq cm); ALPHA = pile batter from horizontal, deg (90 percent = vertical); PERPP = percent of pile load carried by point (decimal); POINTX = point deflection, feet (meters) (known or assumed), generally read 0.00 or a minus value; XMAX = maximum point deflection, inches (centimeters) without a 25 percent point spring reduction

READ AS, BS, EXPO (8F10.4) 20 Lateral subgrade modulus as k = AS + BS\*Z\*\*EXPO

34-42 Zeros and reads initial P matrix

Convert P(1), P(2) into equivalent axial load PAXIS(1) and hold P(1) and P(2) for 51-56 recycle; used if IPRD > 0

Reads shear-transfer data and writes back: NEC(JJ) = number of elements to be used 57-66 with data set; XC(I,JJ) = deflection, inches (abscissa of curve data, use up to eight points); YC(I,JJ) = shear strength mobilized for corresponding XC deflection, ksf (ordinates of curve data, use up to eight points) data read at up to eight points, and written back as check

Sets global P matrix [NPE(I,I)] and reads and stores member data using one card per 69-85 member READ (5F10.4):

XL(I) = pile element length, feet (note it does not have to be a constant); XIN(I) = member moment of inertia, in4; BMEM(I) = member width, inches (projected width for round piles); PER(I) = member perimeter, feet; AREA(I) = member area, sq in; RSPR(I,1), RSPR(I,2) = soil springs if desired to read a modification here, leave blank if no modification (if metric, use corresponding metric units)

```
Operation
Line
            Computes soil modulus with depth for each nodal point and writes values for checking
  86-91
            READ I, SK(I) if JJS > 0 to modify soil modulus at the ith node Begins DO loop for ASA^T matrix. Note IP = pile element number
     92
     95
            Computes member soil springs
 99-110
            SSPR1 = value at top of each element
            Computes nonzero values of element A and S matrices and adjusts ES(3,3), ES(4,4)
117-162
            using F1, F2, F3 as appropriate
            Builds element SAT matrix
163-167
            Builds ASA^T matrix using each member contribution and writes final values if LIST > 0 Inverts ASA^T matrix
169-178
187-199
            Begins loop for obtaining compatibility of X and shear-transfer strength
    200
            Computes current X matrix using 1 as counter for current value and writes values out
203-208
            Computes element deflections as summing process for point to top. Point deflection is
222-242
            computed if necessary. Note that element deflections use the pro rata part of the nodal
            deflection applicable to that element using XPER1 and XPER2. The current point
            deflection PTDEF1 is an average on the third and succeeding cycles of the current and
            preceding point-deflection (PTDEF2) values to improve convergence. All values are
             written out if LIST > 0
             Computes element slip as an element-deflection summation + point-deflection number
244-258
             Using element slip [SLIP(M,JJ)] and the appropriate load-transfer curve computes
266-301
            element shear resistance [FRIC(I)] and corresponding adjustments to the pile axial
            load PAXIS(I). Writes values, including curve used and coordinates and current values
             of PAXIS(I) and FRIC(I) if LIST > 0
             Makes required adjustments for point contribution to pile capacity
 302-312
             Recomputes P matrix. Sets P(I) = 0 if the element shear resistance exceeds the amount
 314-336
             required for static stability
             Includes P\Delta effect in P matrix (moments) if desired (NDELT > 0)
 337-341
 344-350
             Writes new P matrix for error check
             Causes at least two cycles of X to be computed
     355
             Compares the new element slip value to preceding cycle value so that when all values are
 356-368
             within specification, recycling halts, or if seven cycles, computed
             Computes element forces based on last X matrix and writes values out; also checks
 375-388
              \sum F_n as SUMH
             Computes pile top movements and writes out
 397-400
             READ Additional values of POINTX if NLC > 1 value for each new set of P data
     409
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### PILE STRESSES: STATIC LOADING 42

### PILE STRESSES: STATIC LOADING 42

### PILE STRESSES: STATIC LOADING ***)

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### PILE STATIC LOADING ***

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25 ASAT(K,K)=1.0/ASAT(K,K)

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2000 P118 = P(1)
P218 = P(2)
P218 = P(3)
00 7 [=1,NP
X[1,1]=X[1,1]+ASAT[1,J]*P(J)
IF(ABS(X(1,1)).LT.*0000001)X(I,1) = 0.0

7 XMO(I,1) = X[1,1]
XPDEL = X(2,2)
WRITE(3,890)JJJ
890 FORMAT(//.T5,'THE X-MATRIX FOR CYCLE',I3,' IS')
ANP = NP/6
INP = ANP
IF(INP.LT.ANP)INP=INP+1
IZ = 1
D0 188 I = 1.(NP
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ALYTICAL AND COMPUTER METHODS IN FOUNDATION ENGINEERING

234 PAXIS([+1] = PAXIS([) - FRIC([])
235 PAXIS([+1] = PAXIS([) + FRIC([])
45 [F(PAXIS([]) = PAXIS([) + FRIC([])
60 PAXIS([+1] = PAXIS([) + FRIC([]) .ne.0.)PAXIS([+1]) = 0.0
61 PAXIS([+1] = PAXIS([) + FRIC([]) .ne.0.)PAXIS([+1]) = 0.0
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61 PAXIS([+1] = PAXIS([+1] + FRIC([+1]) .ne.0.)PAXIS([+1]) = 0.0
61 PAXIS([+1] + PAXIS([+1] + FRIC([+1]) .ne.0.)PAXIS([+1] + PAXIS([+1] + PAX
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                                                                                                                                           58 IF(ABS(SLYPCH).LE.O.008)KCCUN = KCCUN+1
IF(JJJ.GT.7)GO TO 77
1120 DO 896 J = 1,NM
X(J,2) = X(J,1)
SLIP(J,2) = SLIP(J,1)
896 XMOD(J,2) = XMOD(J,1)
PTDEF2 = PTDEF1
IF(JJJ.LE.2.OR.KCOUN.LT.NM)GO TO 2000
IF(ABS(X(2,1)-XPDEL).GT.O.020.ANC.NDELT.GT.O)GD TO 2000
77 II = 11+1
JJJ = JJJ-
WRITE(3,170)JJJ
170 FORMAT('1',///.T5,'THE FÍNAL CCMPUTED PILE ELEMENT FORCES AND OTHE 1R DATA AFTER'.12,' ITERATIONS FOLLOWS')
WRITE(3,59) UT1
59 FORMAT(//,15,'MEMNO',5X,'END MOMENTS',10X.'AXIAL FORCE',8X,'SOIL R
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0361
0362
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| TEACTIONS.3x,'ELEM. DEFL,',A2,4X,'SCIL SPRINGS')
| GOTO 8000 TO 8000
```

## **PROBLEMS**

12-1 Use three elements and constant skin friction = 4 ksf for all three elements. Solve parts (a) to (c) separately, then (d). Use a 14BP73 with a length of 32 ft.

(a) P(1) = 10 kips

(b) P(2) = 10 kips

(c) P(3) = 10 kips

(d) P(1) = P(2) = P(3) = 10 kips

12-2 Repeat Prob. 12-1 for  $\alpha = 80^{\circ}$ .

12-3 Solve the following problem if  $\alpha=90^\circ$  and the response of these loads is desired (IPRD 1). Use 10 elements, a 16-in-OD  $\times$  0.375-in-wall pipe pile. Use metric units.

(a) P(1) = -450 kN; pile data (fps):

 $I = 562.08 \text{ in}^4$ ; A = 18.408 sq in

(b) P(2) = -200 kN;

perimeter = 4.18 ft; L = 50 ft

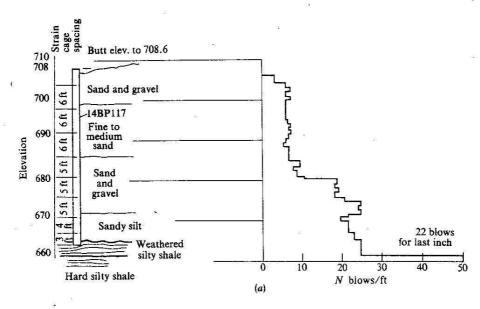
(c) P(3) = 65 kN-m

(6) F(3) = 03 K14-M

(d) The  $\sum P_i$  of (a), (b), (c)

Use three load-transfer curves with constant values of  $\tau$  for all slip as follows:

Elements	1–3	4–7	8–10	
τ, kN/sq m	12.5	8.7	35	



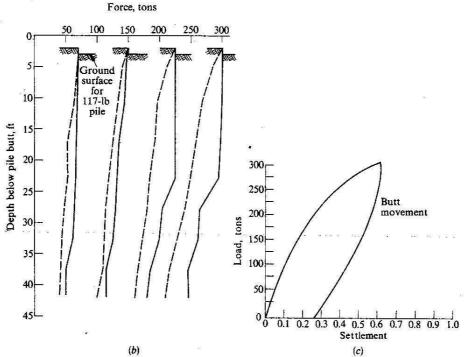


FIGURE 12-8
Point-bearing H-pile tests and data. [After D'Appolonia and Romualdi (1963).]
(a) Soil profile, blow count, and instrumentation. (b) Load-transfer data (tons in fps units). (c) Load-test data for 14BP89 pile.

- 12-4 Repeat Prob. 12-3 for  $\alpha = 80^{\circ}$ .
- 12-5 Verify the output of Example 12-4 using Fig. 12-7.
- 12-6 Repeat Example 12-4 using a stiffer point spring to obtain a better pile-response fit. Subtract the given point deflections (in inches) from the given (or computer listing) element deflections, then add back new estimated point deflections based on the new point spring constant to obtain new deflections. The load-transfer ordinates will not require correction. Other data are unchanged.
- 12-7 Using the D'Appolonia and Romualdi (1963) data of Fig. 12-8, make a plot of load versus deflection and compare to the field test.
- 12-8 Use the data of Reese et al. (1969) (Fig. 12-2) and make a load-versus-deflection curve for comparison to field test 1 or 2.

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# GENERAL SOLUTION FOR PILE GROUPS

# 13-1 MATRIX METHOD OF ANALYSIS FOR PILE GROUPS

A matrix approach for obtaining the individual pile forces in a pile group was considered by Hrennikoff (1950). Later Aschenbrenner (1967) and Bowles (1968) presented solutions for pile heads free to rotate. Saul (1968) and Reese et al. (1970) extended the solution to a somewhat more general case. Butterfield and Banerjee (1971) considered a matrix solution based on a pile located in a homogeneous isotropic half-space. This last solution is considered by the author to be too mathematical to be practical and will not be discussed.

Reese and Saul use very similar methods. Saul places one of the pile-head forces in the XZ plane and considers the pile force components by using a separate matrix. Reese et al. (1970) place one pile-head force in the XY plane and directly consider the contribution of pile-head forces in resisting pile-cap moments. The Reese et al. (1970) solution is essentially the same as the method presented in this chapter. Two of the major differences involved in any matrix method of pile-group analysis are the definition of the direction cosines and the method of defining the pile-head stiffness.

To formulate a three-dimensional matrix solution for a group of piles we will assume that the piles are interconnected at their heads to a rigid pile cap. This implies that relative movement of the pile cap between adjacent pile-head connections is negligible. The pile cap will have six degrees of freedom, including translation in the three coordinate directions as well as freedom to rotate about the three coordinate axes, i.e., translations  $\Delta X$ ,  $\Delta Y$ ,  $\Delta Z$  and rotations  $\alpha X$ ,  $\alpha Y$ ,  $\alpha Z$ . The solution is a relatively simple one using matrix operations, the major part of the effort being that of obtaining direction cosines.

The problem in brief is to solve the usual matrix equations

$$P = AF (a)$$

$$e = A^T X (b)$$

$$F = Se (c)$$

and

$$X = [ASA^T]^{-1}P (d)$$

$$F = SA^T X (e)$$

There are certain dissimilarities in this method, however, in that we must:

- 1 Develop the A matrix for each pile. The individual-pile A matrix in this case is the ratio of applied group load carried by the pile to satisfy the six static equations of equilibrium.
- 2 Develop the S matrix for each pile.
- 3 Recognize that in the equation  $e = BX = A^{T}X$  the reciprocity rule is again valid to obtain  $B = A^T$ .
- 4 Sum the individual-pile ASA<sup>T</sup> matrices as

$$(ASA^{T})_{\text{pile cap}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (ASA^{T})_{i}$$
 (13-1)

to obtain the total pile-cap (and group) matrix to invert.

The sum of the individual-pile forces acting on the foundation cap provides the equilibrium of the system; thus, the signs of the computed pile forces must be interpreted properly; i.e., the direction of the pile forces acting to keep the cap in equilibrium are opposite in direction to the forces acting on the pile (Fig. 13-1).

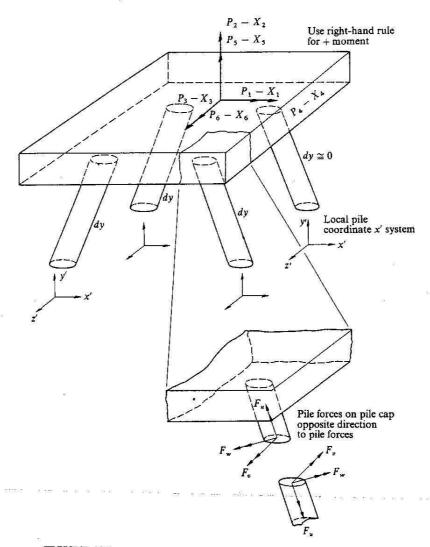


FIGURE 13-1 Pile group with foundation forces  $(P_i)$  and individual-pile forces. Positive directions shown.

# 13-2 THE INDIVIDUAL-PILE A MATRIX

Figure 13-2 is any pile in a group with pile-head coordinates (x,y,z) subject to the pile forces  $F_u$ ,  $F_v$ ,  $F_w$  and moment vectors of  $M_u$ ,  $M_v$  and  $M_w$ . A local coordinate system (X', Y', Z' axes) is placed on the pile head such that the pile force  $F_w$  is in the X'Y'

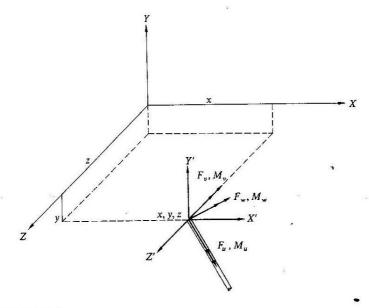


FIGURE 13-2 The pile with the foundation-cap coordinate axis and the local pile coordinate axis. Note that  $F_w$  is in the X'Y' plane. The positive axis system is shown. Positive pile forces are as shown.

plane; thus,  $F_w$  has no force component along the Z axis. The positive X component of  $F_w$  is always in the positive X'-axis direction. Direction cosines are defined as follows:

 $\alpha_1$  = angle of pile projection extension in XZ plane with X axis measured clockwise (obtained graphically or computed)

$$\alpha_2$$
 = pile slope computed as -

$$\alpha_2 = \tan^{-1} \frac{H}{1} \tag{13-2}$$

where H is vertical-to-horizontal pitch taken as 1; thus, 4:1 or 12:1 batter (H = 4and 12 in these cases)

$$\alpha_3 = \tan^{-1} \frac{\sin \alpha_2}{\cos \alpha_1 \cos \alpha_2} \tag{13-3}$$

where the appropriate trigonometric relationships are obtained from Fig. 13-3. Note that  $\alpha_3$  defines the slope of force  $F_w$  in the XY plane since

$$\lambda = 90 - \alpha_3$$

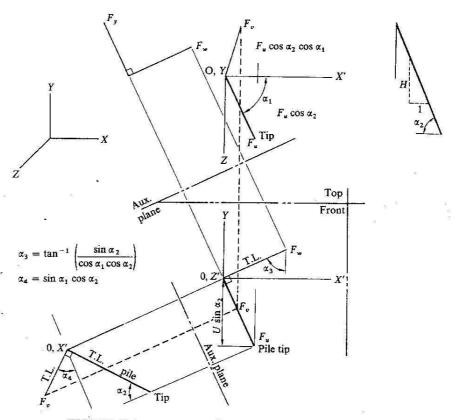


FIGURE 13-3
Method of obtaining the direction cosines for building the A matrix.

From Fig. 13-3 the other angle,  $\alpha_4$ , needed to develop the A matrix is

$$\alpha_4 = \sin \alpha_1 \cos \alpha_2 \tag{13-4}$$

That portion of the pile-cap forces  $P'_i$  carried by the individual (ith) pile is

$$P'|_i = AF$$

and the following A matrix can be established from this equation. For convenience the familiar static forces  $F_x, F_y, \ldots, M_z$  associated with the appropriate P-matrix values are identified.

4	$M_w = 6$ $0$ $0$ $0$ $\sin \alpha_3$ $\cos \alpha_3$ $0$
$lpha_4$	$M_v = 5$ $0$ $0$ $0$ $\cos \alpha_3 \cos \alpha_4$ $\sin \alpha_3 \cos \alpha_4$ $\sin \alpha_4 \cos \alpha_4$
$F_{\nu} = 2$ $\cos \alpha_3 \cos \alpha_4$ $\sin \alpha_3 \cos \alpha_4$ $\sin \alpha_4$ $-Z(\sin \alpha_3 \cos \alpha_4) + Y \sin \alpha_4$ $Z(\cos \alpha_3 \cos \alpha_4) - X \sin \alpha_4$ $-Y(\cos \alpha_3 \cos \alpha_4) + X(\sin \alpha_3 \cos \alpha_4)$	$M_n = 4$ $0$ $0$ $0$ $\cos \alpha_1 \cos \alpha_2$ $-\sin \alpha_2$ $\sin \alpha_1 \cos \alpha_2$
2	$F_w = 3$ $\sin \alpha_3$ $\cos \alpha_3$ $0$ $-Z \cos \alpha_3$ $Z \sin \alpha_3$ $-Y \sin \alpha_3 + X \cos \alpha_3$
$P'_{1} = F_{x} = 1$ $P'_{2} = F_{x} = 1$ $P'_{2} = F_{y} = 2$ $P'_{3} = F_{y} = 2$ $P'_{3} = F_{y} = 1$ $P'_{3} = F_{x} = 3$ $P'_{4} = M_{x} = 4$ $-S(-\sin \alpha_{2}) + Y(\sin \alpha_{1} \cos \alpha_{2})$ $P'_{5} = M_{y} = 5$ $Z \cos \alpha_{1} \cos \alpha_{2} - X \sin \alpha_{1} \cos \alpha_{2}$ $P'_{6} = M_{z} = 6$ $-Y(\cos \alpha_{1} \cos \alpha_{2}) + X(-\sin \alpha_{2})$	e week a s

The sum of all the pile-component contributions is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} P_{i} = P_{\text{total found}} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} AF$$

## 13-3 THE S MATRIX

A relationship can be developed using the lateral-pile solution of Chap. 9 [see also Bowles (1968), p. 551] to obtain the individual pile-head response to rotation and translation.

The torsion resistance of piles is an estimate. In the absence of better data a value can be taken:

Torsion constant 
$$E = \psi \frac{GJ}{L'}$$
 FL/rad

where G = shear modulus of pile material

J = polar moment of inertia (Table 13-1) of pile

L' = effective pile length

 $\psi$  = coefficient to correct the constant

Since lateral-pile response indicates fixity at approximately L/3, a value of  $\psi=2$  to 2.5 does not appear unreasonable.

The compression constant can be computed using the method of Chap. 12 as illustrated in Example 12-2. Alternatively one might use a value of

Compression constant 
$$A' = \begin{cases} \frac{AE}{L} & \text{for point-bearing piles} \\ \frac{2AE}{L} & \text{for friction piles} \end{cases}$$

where A = cross-sectional area of pile

E =modulus of elasticity

The S matrix from the relationship

F = Se

Table 13-1 H-PILE PROPERTIES INCLUDING TORSION CONSTANT J

			Flange			Elastic	lastic properties			•		
		Š	NV 22 del	Thick-	Web	Axis XX	. ب		Axis YY	T		
Designation	Area A, sq in	Depth d, in	width $b_{f}$ , in	ness t <sub>f</sub> , in	thickness  'w,  in	ii,	S, in	오크	I, in <sup>4</sup>	S, in <sup>3</sup>	r.ii	*,* in4
HP14X117	34.4	14.23	14.885	0.805	0.805	1,230	173	5.97	443	59.5	3.59	8.10
X102	30.0	14.03	14.784	0.704	0.704	1,050	150	5.93	380	51.3	3.56	5.41
8XX	26.2	13.86	14.696	0.616	0.616	910	131	5.89	326	44.4	3.53	3.67
X73	21.5	13.64	14.586	0.506	0.506	734	108	5.85	262	35.9	3,49	2.06
HP12X74	21.8	12.12	12,217	0,607	0.607	999	93.4	5.10	185	30.2	2.91	2.96
X53	15.6	11.78	12.046	0.436	0.436	394	6.99	5.03	127	21.1	2.86	1.12
HP10X57	16.8	10.01	10,224	0.564	0.564	295	58.8	4.19	101	19.7	2,45	1.97
X42	12.4	9.72	10.078	0.418	0.418	211	43.4	4.13	71.4	14.2	2.40	0.83(
HP8X36	10.6	8.03	8.158	0.446	0.446	120	29.9	3.36	40,4	16.6	1.95	0.768

is obtained for the individual pile as follows:

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} F_{u} = 1 & \Delta v = 2 & \Delta w = 3 & \alpha_{u} = 4 & \alpha_{v} = 5 & \alpha_{w} = 6 \\ F_{v} = 2 & A' & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ F_{v} = 2 & A' & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & +C \\ 0 & B_{0} & 0 & 0 & 0 & +C \\ 0 & 0 & B_{1} & 0 & -C & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & E & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -D & 0 & F_{0} & 0 \\ 0 & D & 0 & 0 & 0 & F_{1} \end{bmatrix}$$

where A' = compression constant using the method of Chap. 12 (approximately AE/L or 2AE/L) (computer program variable C5)

 $B_0$ ,  $B_1$  = constants relating head response to cause unit deformation in either v or w direction (translation); for batter piles  $B_0 \neq B_1$ ; however, in absence of better data use  $B_0 = B_1$  (computer program variable C1)

 $C = \text{constant relating effect of pile-head rotation to create a force } F_v$  due to  $\alpha_w$  or  $F_w$  due to  $\alpha_v$  (computer program variable C2)

 $D = \text{similar to } C \text{ except these constants cause moment } M_v \text{ due to translation } \delta_v \text{ (computer program variable C3)}$ 

E = torsion constant of pile (computer program variable C6)

 $F_0$ ,  $F_1$  = constants analogous to B relating rotation to moment; for batter piles  $F_0 \neq F_1$ ; however, in absence of better data take  $F_0 = F_1$  (computer program variable C4)

The S-matrix constants B and D are obtained by finding the lateral-pile solution of Chap. 9 for translation and specified rotation (which may be zero or an assumed value of rotation, say 0.001, 0.005, 0.01 rad, etc.). This assumed value of rotation will produce a fixed-end-moment effect which can be applied in the P matrix at the appropriate nodes and properly subscripted. The lateral-pile program output will give:

- I Pile-head translation for incremented values of applied head force, say for 5, 10, 15, 20 kips.
- 2 Pile-head end moment for each of the applied lateral forces of item 1 necessary to maintain the head in an unrotated position. One can now plot:
- 3 Applied lateral-pile force versus deflection, the slope of which is

$$C1 = B = \frac{P}{\delta_h}$$
 force/length =  $FL^{-1}$ 

4 Induced pile-end moment versus deflection, the slope of which is

$$C3 = D = \frac{M}{\delta_h} \quad FLL^{-1}$$

In a similar manner we may use the lateral-pile solution for rotation (but no translation) and apply a series of moments to the pile head. For small translations we can compute fixed-end moments for assumed values of, say,  $\Delta = 0.001$ , 0.005, and 0.01 ft and apply them appropriately in the P matrix at the two affected nodes. The output will give data to plot curves of:

1 Pile-head rotation  $\theta$  in radians versus incremented moment, the slope of which is

$$C4 = F = \frac{M}{\theta} \qquad FL/rad$$

2 Pile-head force  $P_h$  necessary to restrain translation when the corresponding moments are applied. This force is plotted versus rotation  $\theta$  to give

$$C2 = C = \frac{P_h}{\theta}$$
  $F/rad$ 

It should be evident that by using these two modified lateral-pile solutions any degree of head fixity can be analyzed. Obviously, if the pile head is pinned to the foundation cap, constants D, E, and F (C3, C4, and C6 of computer program) are zero; if fully fixed, the constants C (C2 in computer program) are zero. Most practical solutions are somewhere between these two extremes, as obtained using all six constants in the S matrix.

These solutions imply that the deflections are small and that the slope of the pile-head response curves is linear over the range of deflections to be considered. If deflections are too large or in the nonlinear range, revised S-matrix values can be used through an iterative process of computing the deflections, obtaining the constants, recomputing the deflections, etc., until reasonable agreement of used versus computed deflection is reached.

## 13-4 THE GENERAL SOLUTION

With the individual-pile A and S matrices built, one proceeds to build the  $SA^T$  and  $ASA^T$  matrices for each pile. All the individual-pile matrices are of order  $6 \times 6$ ; thus, this problem can be solved efficiently on a computer of very modest core capacity.

As the  $ASA^T$  is built for each pile, it is added term by term to the foundation  $ASA^T$  matrix.

When all piles have contributed their individual  $ASA^T$  to the foundation  $ASA^T$  matrix, the resulting matrix (also  $6 \times 6$ ) is inverted and the foundation displacements computed as

$$X = \left\lceil ASA^T \right\rceil^{-1} P$$

With the foundation (pile-cap) displacements (X's) known, the individual pile movements are also known since we have assumed a rigid pile cap. The X matrix is at this point related to the components of individual-pile displacements in the six degrees of freedom through the relationship

$$e = A^T X$$

from which the individual-pile movements are computed. Note that the units of displacement will be the units used in the P and S matrices. The individual-pile forces can be computed once the pile displacements are known, using

$$F = Se$$

One can also compute the individual-pile forces directly from the foundation-displacement matrix X and the individual-pile  $SA^T$  matrix

$$F = SA^TX$$

This latter computation however, will not yield correct values for pile moments, as the moments computed in this equation also include the effect of pile position (terms in the lower left corner of the A matrix).

#### 13-5 EXAMPLES

Three examples will illustrate the procedure and checking of the solutions. The first problem will use four piles with a simple loading system for ease in checking. The second problem will be more general with nine piles and the maximum possible loads, namely, six. The third problem is a four-pile solution in metric units and with pinned heads (capable of rotation and translation).

EXAMPLE 13.1 Find the individual-pile forces and movements for the conditions given in Fig. E13-1.1. The piles are 14BP73 steel sections approximately 50 ft in length. Soil-modulus variation with depth is shown in Fig. 12-5. The load-transfer data and response are also shown in Fig. 12-5. Assume that the piles are reasonably rigidly attached to the pile cap, and compute the pile forces.

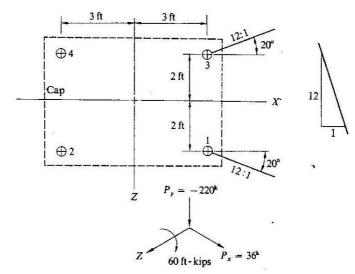


FIGURE E13-1.1 Pile group for Example 13-1.

SOLUTION The lateral-pile solution of Chap. 9, appropriately modified, is used to obtain the pile-head response curves shown in Fig. 13-4. We will assume the S-matrix constant C6 (or E) as (obtain G from Table 13-1 and assume  $\psi=2.0$ ):

$$C6 = \frac{2.0(12,000)(2.060)}{50(144)} = 0.6867 \text{ ft-kips/rad}$$

C5 = 
$$\frac{(60 - 20)12}{1.87 - 0.29}$$
 = 303.8 kips/ft Fig. 12-5

C1 = 
$$\frac{P_h}{\delta} = \frac{40(12)}{0.977} = 491.3 \text{ kips/ft}$$
 Fig. 13-4a

C2 = 
$$\frac{P_h}{\phi} = \frac{3.717}{1.289 \times 10^{-3}} = 2,883.6 \text{ kips/rad}$$
 Fig. 13-4b

C3 = 
$$\frac{M}{\delta}$$
 =  $\frac{235.04(12)}{0.977}$  = 2,886.8 ft-kips/ft Fig. 13-4a

C4 = 
$$\frac{M}{\phi}$$
 =  $\frac{100}{3.222 \times 10^{-3}}$  = 31,036 ft-kips/rad Fig. 13-4b

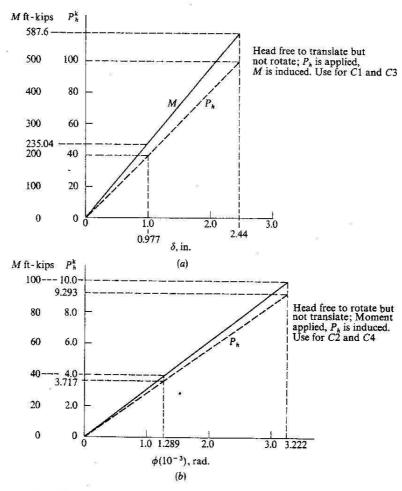


FIGURE 13-4
Pile response curves using the lateral-pile solution of Chap. 9 and a 14BP73 pile.
Curves to be used to obtain S-matrix entries for Examples 13-1 and 13-2.

Computer input, based on one-load condition (NLC = 1) to obtain a complete listing (LIST = 1) is as follows:

Card	Data
1	TITLE (Note that a UNIT card is not needed)
2	N NP NLC LIST
	4 3 1 1
	C1-C6
3	491.3 2883.6 2886.8 31036.0 303.8 .6867
	X(K) $Y(K)$ $Z(K)$ $ALPHA(K)$ $H(K)$
4	3.0 0, 2,0 20, 12,
4 5 6 7 8 9	Duplicate card 3
6	-3.0 0. $-2.0$ 0. 100.
7	Duplicate card 3
8	3.0 02.0 340. 12.
9	Duplicate card 3
10	-3.0 0. $-2.0$ 0. $100$ .
11	1 36 P(1) in $+X$ direction Fig. 13-1
12	2 - 220. P(2) in $-Y$ direction (downward)
13	6 -60. P(6) moment clockwise about Z axis

These data cards represent the input. The output is shown on Fig. E13-1.2.

## CHECK EXAMPLE 13-1 AND COMMENTS

- 1 Note that  $\sum F_x$ ,  $\sum F_y$ , and  $\sum F_z = 0$  from the last page of computer output (given values are listed in parentheses).
- 2 The sum of  $M_v = 2(-15.8) + 2(27.2) = 22.8$  and the loading system introduces a moment about the Z axis of

$$-2(3)(51.89) + 2(3)(58.11) = 37.4$$
 ft-kips

- $\sum M_v = 22.8 + 37.4 60 \approx 0.$
- 3 Note that the axial loads are not the same in all piles.
- 4 The  $M_x$ ,  $M_y$ , and  $M_z$  components shown in the output include the moments contributed by the pile-head forces and the pile position with respect to the axes of the pile cap. For example,  $M_x = 132.03 = 2(58.11) + 16$  for pile 1;  $M_y = 2(7.61) + 3(1.02) - 0.028(27.2) + 0.078(15.8) = 18.75 \text{ ft-kips}$  (18.75). 5 The bending moment in pile 1 is  $M_v = 27.0$  ft-kips,  $M_w = 16$  ft-kips, both values taken directly from the computer output sheet.
- 6 Additional refinement might have been made in C5 by obtaining the slope across a load increment closer to 58 and 52 kips rather than from 20 to 60 kips. 7 Since this group of piles is symmetrically placed, one would expect the lateralpressure response of piles 1 and 3 in the Z direction to be equal and opposite in sign (-1.02 and +1.02).

				8
		0.2 17.0 10.6 -0.0 -66.3	-14.7 -9.8 -0.0 -57.7	-0.2 17.0 -10.6 -0.0 66.3
	6 0.7 0.0 7.0	FACTORED 6.1 29.0 -0.8 0.0 5.2 311.0	FACTORED 6-1 28-8 -0.0 0.0 310-4	FACTGRED 29.0 0.8 0.0 -5.2 311.0
		ATRIX100 0-1 -4-9 0-0 0-0 -28-9	TRIX-100 0.0 -4.9 0.0 0.0 -28.9	MATRIX-100 -0.1 -4.9 0.0 0.0 -28.9
	65 303 303 303	THE SAT M -3.0 -0.1 0.4 -2.3	THE SAT MA	THE SAT MA -3.0 0.1 0.0 -2.3
100.00 12.00 100.00	24 31036.0 31036.0 31036.0	0.0 0.0 4.9 -28.8	0.400.0 0.400.0 0.000.0	0.2 -0.0 4.9 0.0 -28.8
0.00	186.8 186.8 186.8	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.9969 0.0781	0.0 0.0 0.0 1.0000 0.0000	0.0 0.0 0.9969 0.0781
m	•	*** 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0022 -0.0283	*** 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0000 -0.0000	3*** 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0
	2883.6 2883.6 2883.6 2883.6	7.8	LE NU 0.0 0.0 -1.000	0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.078 -0.028
0.0 0.0 ONSTANTS	91.3 91.3 91.3	×	× 1 1	X FUR PILE NO 0.9969 0.0 0.0781 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.1561 0.0 1.9939 -0.99
		Sect. 18 0. 1861		A-MATRIX 0.0283 0.0883 -0.9996 0.0566 3.0032
₩4 H	PILE NU 2 2 3 4	0.078 0.0996 0.0996 1.9993 0.070 0.070	1.0000 -1.0000 0.0 2.0000 3.0000	THE 0.0780 -0.9965 -0.0284 -1.9931 -0.0709
	2.00 0.0 -2.00 340.00	2 -3.00 0.0 2.00 0.0 100.00 3 3.00 0.0 -2.00 340.00 12.00 THE PILE CONSTANTS ARE CONSTANTS ARE 1. 491.3 2883.6 2886.8 31036.0 303.8 491.3 2883.6 2886.8 31036.0 303.8 491.3 2883.6 2886.8 31036.0 303.8	THE PILE CONSTANTS ARE  -3.00  0.0  -2.00  340.00  12.00  13.03.8  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.35.0  10.30.0  10.	THE PILE CONSTANTS ARE  -3.00  0.0  -2.00  -2.00  0.0  -2.00  0.0  -2.00  0.0  0.

A-MATRIX FOR PILE NO 4***  0.0000 0.000 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0		٦.	0.	89.	0.	4.	0.0								
TURED 0.14. 1.4. 1.4. 1.4. 1.4. 1.4. 1.4. 1.4		6	0	28	0	-310	0								
THE A-MATRIX FOR PILE NO 4***  THE SAT MATRIX—100 FACTOREE  0.0000 1.0000 0.00  0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0  0.0 0.0 0.0		0.0	-14.7	8.6-	0.0-	57.7	-86.6								
THE A-MATRIX FOR PILE NO 4***  1000 0.0000 1.0000 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0	FACTOREC	-6.1	28.8	0.0	0.0	0.0-	310.4					-	•		
THE A-MATRIX FOR PILE NO 4***  0 0.0000 1.0000 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	X100	0.0	6.4							11.6	0	0-0-	0.0	0.0	137.8
THE A-MATRIX FOR PILE NO 4***  10000 0.0000 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	T MATRI.						.1			0.0-	0*0-	-0.5	4.7	29.3	0.0-
THE A-MATRIX FOR PILE NO 4***  0 0.0000 1.0000 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	THE SA	m -	0-	0	0	-0-	-0-		010	0.0	0.0	11.5	29.3	4.7	0.0
THE A-MATRIX FOR PILE NO 4***  0 0.0000 1.0000 0.0 0.0 0.0  0.0000 0.0000 0.0 0.0		0.0	0.0	4.9	0.0	-28.9	0.0		OUD FACTO	0.0					0.0
THE A-WATRIX FOR PILE NO 4***  0 0.0000 1.0000 0.0 0.0  0.0000 0.0000 0.0 0.0  0.0000 -0.0000 0.0 0.0  0.0000 -2.0000 0.0 0.0  0.0000 -2.0000 0.0 0.0  0.0000 0.0000 0.0 0.0  PX = 220.00 2 0.0  PX = 220.00 2 0.0  PX = 220.00 2 0.0  PX = -220.00 2 0.0  PX = -220.00 2 0.0  PX = -2.0000 0.0  PX = 0.00  PX = 0.0		0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0000	0.0000	0.0		MATRIX	0.0	1.2	0.0			0.5
THE A-MATRIX FOR PILE NO 4**  0 0.0000 1.0000 0.0  0.0000 -0.0000 0.0  0.0000 -0.0000 0.0  0.0000 -0.0000 0.0  0.0000 -0.0000 0.0  PY = 20.000 1.0000 0.0  PY = 20.000 2  PY = 20.000 2  PY = -20.00 3  PY = -20.00 2  PY = -20.00 2  PY = -20.00 0.000  PY = -0.000 0.0000  PY = -0.000 0.0000  PY = -0.0000	÷	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0000	000000	1.0000		N ASAT	0.	0.0	0.1	0.		
THE A-MATRIX FOR PILE  0 0.0000 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 -0.0000 0.0000 -0.0000 0.0000 -0.0000 0.0000 -0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.00000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.00000 0.0000 0.000000 0.00000 0.000000 0.00000 0.00000000		0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0			10	DITARABLE	1	2.	0	4	9	9
THE A-MATRIX F  0 0.0000 1  0.0000 -0.0000 0  0.0000 -0.0000 0  0.0000 -0.0000 0  PX = 20.000  PX = 20.000  PX = 0.000  PX = -20.000  PX = -20.000  PX = -20.000  PX = -60.000  PX = -60.0000  PX = -60.00000  PX = -60.0000  PX = -60.00000  PX	OR PILE					- 00000			THE						
THE A-1  10000 -0  10000 -	MATRIX F						0- 0000*		٧ -	36.00	-220.00	0.0	0.0	0.0	-60.00
	THE A-		- 00				3.0000 0.		D-MATRI	# Xd	₽¥ =				= 7H

FIGURE E13-1.2 I/O (complete listing) for Example 13-1. Note that the last two lines provide the statics check for the problem. Individual piles must resist the axial force F<sub>u</sub> (FU) and the bending moment M<sub>o</sub> (MV).

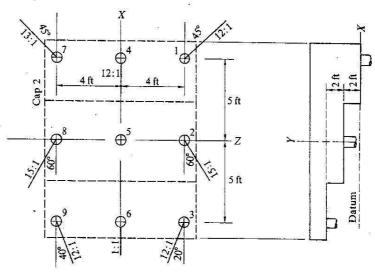


FIGURE E13-2.1
Nine-pile group with pile heads at varying elevations.

EXAMPLE 13.2 A nine-pile group as shown in Fig. E13-2.1 will be analyzed. Piles are 14BP73, and all pile data used in Example 13-1 will be used here. The only change is in using a rather odd pile group to illustrate entering data into the computer program. Note, however, that using the same S-matrix entries for this group and that of Example 13-1 is questionable, especially for those piles with heads at  $\pm 4.0$ -ft elevation or for batters at large skew angles.

SOLUTION With data similar to Example 13-1 only the cards containing the pile coordinates will be shown to illustrate entering the  $\alpha$  angle.

1	TITLI	3			
2	N N	P NL	C LIS	T	
	9 6	1	0		
Pile	X(K)	Y(K)	Z(K)	ALPHA(K)	H(K)
1	5,0	0.	4.	45.	12.
2	0.0	2.	4.	120.	15.
3	-5.0	4.	4.	200.	12.
4 5	5.0	0.	0.	180.	12.
	0.0	2.	0.	0.	100.
6	-5.0	4.	0.	180.	1.
7	5.0	0.	-4.	315.	12.
8	0.0	2.	-4.	240.	15.
9	-5.0	4.	-4.	160.	12.
10-15	P-mat	rix entr	ies (eac	h entry on sep	arate c
		0.00	4	-250.	
		500.	5	-180.	
	3 2	200.0	6	-120.	

The partial computer input and output sheets follow (Fig. E13-2.2); note again that the problem statics are satisfied.

																															1	11.	50.4		.05	19.	. 93	.86	60.										
																													0.002146		>	-133.77	89.62-	24.00	-128.05	-352.61	-89.93	'n	-12.09										
												,	_	_	7	_	~ 1	<b>-</b> -	~ I	~ r									7=		⊋	00.00	000	000	-0-00	0.00	-0.00	00.0-	00.0-		100				li cui		20		
											į	9	0.0	0.1	1.0	0	o ·	්	•		•		0 0	1	0.0	0	404.6		50 ALPHA 2=	NG ON CAP		17.40	40.01	13.14	16.65	65.16	10.40	4.33	7.12		7W	1010.24	104.4350	1901-0347	94.7558	-12.2454	-187.4813	11.9417	
											1	50	303.8	303 · B	303.8	303.8	303.8	303.6	303.8	303.8	0.000				0.0				ALPHA Y= 0.001450	THE FOUNDATION DISPLACEMENTS AND PILE FURCES**NOTE FU.FV.FW.FU. TRE ACTING ON CAP		16.62-	59.07	15.54	-35.05	16.36	-39.61	10.64	19.03	ONG AXES	HY	4661.88-	32.4844	9016.181	0.000	47.0688	-258.2166	-10.0143	****
													o	0	0	0	0	0	0	0 0	•	TORED	3 0		300.6	51.0	0.0		ALPHA	V.FW.ET			76							FORCES ALC			50.5			102			
BATTER		00.21	00.61	00.21	00.21	00.001	1.00	12.00	15.00	12.00	i	ပ် •	31036-0	31036.0	31036.0	31036.0	31036.0	31036.0	31036.0	31036.0	. oco1e	1000 FACTORED	0.0	0.0	* * *		0		ALPHA X=-0.003268	TE FU, F			20.04	49.89	53.97	30.82	53.93	56.74	*	4	×	-40.1733	3694 676	4016.747	-181 9139	100.1302	-498.5479	00.00	1
		00.44	00-07	00"002			80.00	315.00	240.00	160.00			2686.8	2886.8	6.9	2886.8	2886.8	6.8	2886.8	2886.8		!×	1.0	5.5	0.0	30			PHA X=-	ES**NC	ALPHA N	-0.0032	0.0033	-0.0034	-0.0033	-0.0033	-0.0032	-0.0033	-0.0034	CHECK SUM	F.Z	32,6815	23.5307	9757 71	15.0513	3556	36.3775		120
ALPHA		3	170	3	797	9	180	315	240	160		C	288	288	2886.	288	288	288	288	288	790	ASAT						TS ARE	97 AL	E FURC	PHA V		0.0021						1700	2		32	53	7 .		, 2	9	٠	5
,	,	4.00	4.00	00.	0	0.0	0.0	00.4	00.4-	-4.00			2883.6	2883.6	2883.6	2883.6	2883.6	2883.6	2883.6	2883.6	2883.0	FOUNDAT TUN		1.0-	0.0		-15.6	THE FOUNDATION DISPLACEMENTS ARE	Z= 0.058697	AND PIL			-0.0012							<b>CUMPONENTS</b>	ř	-45.1102	-51.9366	2014-26-	200000	-72, 1056	-55.4508		7.7
	100	•	2.00	00.4	0.0	2.00	00.4	0.0	2.00	00.	or:	3	288	288	268	288	288	288	288	288	789	THE FOUN	-	~	е,	t u		N DISP	44 2=	MENTS			76 -0.		13 -0-	52 0.	95 -0.												
T DATA	- 1	0.0	~	÷	•	2	*	•	~	*	STANTS			£91.3	491.3	F.	۳.	.3	491.3	m	491.3		00,	00	000	200	200	NDATEG	Y=-0.177644	SPLACE			0.0326			0.1452			0.0269	PILE FORCE	X.	20-0859	B.3125	1.5364	8.9350	20.0404	13.6833		757
GENERAL INPUT DATA	<	2.00	0.0	-5.00	2.00	0.0	-5.00	5.00	0.0	-5.00	PILE CONSTANT	3	491.3	164	164	491.3	491.3	491.3	491	491.3	55		100,00	-200.00	200.00	00.067	-120.00	THE FOR	77 YE-	TION DI	6	-0.0422	0.0615	0.0514	-0.0522	0.0529	-0.0620	0.0411	0.0585	IND I V I DUAL	모	-				2004	200		
		_	2		4.	ı,		_			THE	ON.		2	-		ď	9	~	80	6	P-HATEIX		۳ ۲		# 1 # 3	. X		* 0.025577	FOUNDA			0.1663	0.164.2				0.1858	.2014	VIONI	PILE	-	7	m ·	4 u	0 4	۰-		•
4.10	1		987.5		-							PILE										THE	-	2	m .	4 1	n 4		*	THE	1r.E		2 .						0										

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FIGURE E13-2.2 Complete input and partial output for Example 13-2. Note again that the statics check in the last two lines.

EXAMPLE 13-3 Solve the pile group shown in Fig. E13-3.1 using metric units. This is the same pile-soil system (14BP73) as in Example 13-1. Assume that the heads are pinned to the pile cap. The loads are  $P_x = 222 \text{ kN}$  (50 kips);  $P_y = -1,780 \text{ kN}$  (400 kips), and  $M_y = -108.5 \text{ kN-m}$  (80 ft-kips).

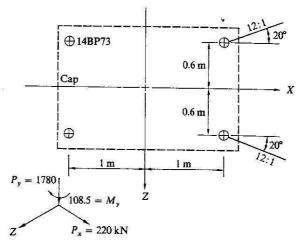


FIGURE E13-3.1 Pile group.

SOLUTION From Fig. E9-3.2 the slope of curve a gives

C1 = 
$$\frac{P}{\Delta}$$
 =  $\frac{100(100)}{3.587}$  = 2,787.8 kN/m

and from curve b

$$C2 = \frac{P}{\theta} = \frac{100}{0.011} = 9,090.9 \text{ kN/rad}$$

From Example 13-1 we have

$$C5 = 303.8(14.5914) = 4,432.9 \text{ kN/m}$$

Since the pile heads are pinned, C3 = C4 = C6 = 0.0. Data cards are similar:

Card	Data					
1	TITLE		- 35	•		-
2	4	3	1	1		
2	2787.8	9090.9	0.	Õ.	4432.9	0.0
4	1	0	.6	822273	12.	
11	1 2	22.2 kN				
12		780. kN				
13	5 -1	08.5 kN	-m			

The partial output is shown on Fig. E13-3.2 (pages 447 and 448).

	GENERAL INPUT DATA	T DATA									
PILE NO	×	<b>&gt;</b>	2	AL	<b>LPHA</b>	BATTER					
-	1.00	0.0	o	0.60	20.00	12,00					
7	-1.00	0.0	o	0.60	0.0	100.00					
ı M	1.00	0.0	0		340.00	12.400					
4	-1.00	0.0	-0-		0.0	100.00					
THE	•		ARE								
PILE NO			C.2	E		C4	63		98		
-	2787.8	ď	0.0000			0-0	6.6544				
+ c	0.046	•	0000	-			200	• •			
7 1	1017		4.0000	T. 10	•	0.0	K.7C++	۲۰۶	2 .		
Υ1	8.1817	× ×	70707		0	0	4434.9	۲۰۶	o. o		
4	2787.8	<b>.</b>	6.0606	*	0.0	0.0	4432.9	5.9	0.0		
THE	A-MATRIX FOR PILE NO	FOR PIL		***			THE SAT	THE SAT MATRIX100	) FACTORED		
0.0780		0.9969	0.0	0.0	0.0	5.5	-44.2	1.3		B. 0	-44-
-0.9965	1	0.0781	0.0	0-0	0-0	1.0	1	-27.9	-	3.5	1 4
48600						9 6					6
1000			000		0		4 0	•	1	7.4	75.0
77.000		10.0408	0.00		4964°D	o .	) (	o .	0	0	•
0.0184		7966.0	-0.4400	-0.0283	0.0781	3	• •	<b>9</b>	0.0	0.0	ċ
-0.9965	-0.0283	0.0781	0.0284	0.0284 -0.9996	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
THE	A-MATRIX	FOR PILE NO		2***			THE SAT A	THE SAT MATRIX100	FACTORED	12	
0.0	000000	1.0000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	-44.3	0.0	26.6	0.0	44.7
-1.0000		0.0000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0-	-27.9	6.06	-27.9	0
0.0	-1.0000	0.0		0.0	0.0	27.9	0.0	0.0	0.0-	16.7	00
0.6000	0.0000	-0.0000	0.0	0.000	1.0000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	
0.0	-1.0000		-1,0000	-0.0000	0.0000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	<b>.</b>
1.0000	0.0000		0.0	-1.0000	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
				2							
	A-MATRIX			***			THE SAT P	THE SAT MATRIX 100 FACTURED	FACTURED		
	-0.0022	6966 0	0.0	0-0	0.0	3.5	-44.2	-1.3	-26.5	-0.B	-44.2
	0.0283	0.0781	0.0	0.0	0.0	0-1	0.8	-27.9	91.1	35.0	0
-0.0284	9666.0-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	27.8	2.2	0.0	.5	-19.2	93.0
-0.5979	0.0170	0.046B	0.0780	-0.0022	6966.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0
-0.0184	1.0009	-0.5982	-0.9965	0.0283	0.0781	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0
9966-0-	0.0283	0.0781	-0.0284	9666*0-	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0:0	0.0	0.0
7 (1, 1, 7, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1,	777						100				
FIGURE	FIGURE E13-3.2										

Complete I/O for Example 13-3. Note that forces are in kilonewtons and moments in kilonewton-meters. Displacements are in radians and meters.

		0000	
4,00000		¥	
-27.9 -16.7 -0.0 0.0	00111	× 0000	
FACTORED 26.6 90.9 0.0 0.0 0.0	1.4 -0.0 -0.0 -9.1 ALPHA Z= 0.000111	CAP MU 0.0 0.0	911 072 064 911 007
7Rix-100 0.0 -27.9 0.0 0.0	01   -	14.69 14.69 38.27 39.43 59.75	445.1072 445.1072 445.10072 445.1006 445.1006 445.1006
THE SAT MATRIX100 -44.3 -0.0 -0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	0.0 0.0 0.0 -0.0 0.7 -0.0 0.0 16.9 0.0 -0.0	FU,FV,FW,ETC ARE ACTING ON CAP FU FV FV 1447.93 -12.19 14.69 445.11 20.18 38.27 448.94 -28.21 39.43 444.89 20.18 59.75	1LONG AXES MY 4.8414 2.7818 -60.0950 -56.0282 -108.4999
0.000	T MATRIX10000 FACTORED -0.3 0.0 0.0 0.0 17.7 -0.0 0.0 -0.0 0.0 11.2 -36.2 -1.4 0.0 0.1 6.7 0.0 -0.0 0.0 -0.0 16.9 -0.0 -0.0 -0.0 16.9 -0.0 -0.0 -0.0 APHA X= 0.000041 ALPHA Y=-0.406422	FU,FV,FW FU 447.93 445.11 448.94 444.89	INDIVIDUAL PILE FURCE CUMPONENTS TO CHECK SUM UF FURCES ALUNG AXES PILE NO FX HX HY FZ HX HX HY HY FZ HX HX HY HY FZ HX HX HY HX
0.0	MATRIX-100 17.7 17.7 17.7 10.0 0.0 -0.0 E	THE FOUNDATION DISPLACEMENTS AND PILE FORCES**NOTE  B DU DY DW ALPHA U ALPHA V ALPHA W 0.1010 -0.0029 0.0055 0.0064 0.0001 -0.0005 0.1064 0.0071 0.0134 0.0064 -0.0001 0.0000 0.1013 -0.0086 D.0132 0.0064 -0.0001 0.0005 0.1004 0.0071 0.0211 0.0064 -0.0001 0.0000	CHECK SUM 0 FZ 24-9631 2 -20-1783 2 15-4515 -2 -20-1783 -2 -0.0001
4*** 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0000 0.0.0000	₹ **	IIS AND PILE FORCES**NA ALPHA U ALPHA V ALPHA W 0.0064 0.0001 -0.0005 0.0064 -0.0001 0.0000 0.0064 -0.0001 0.0000	111 24 15 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17 17
00	1X 1S 222.00 1 11.2 -1780.00 2 -0.3 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0 0.0	ALPHA U ALPHA U 5 0.0064 4 0.0064 2 0.0064 1 0.0064	CE CUMPONENT -44,8911 -445,1072 -445,1073 -445,1073 -1779,9958 -1780,000)
A-MATRIX FOR PILE NO 0.0000 1.0000 0.0 -0.0000 0.0 0.0 -0.0000 0.0 0.0 -1.0000 0.0000 0.0 -1.0000 -0.6000 -1.00	X IS 222.00 -1780.00 0.0 0.0 -108.50 0.0 HE FOUNDATION D	DISPLACEME 29 0.0055 71 0.0134 86 0.0132 71 0.0211	49.5775 49.5775 38.2668 74.4058 59.7498 221.9999 222.0001(
	THE P-MATRIX IS  1 PX = 22. 2 PY = -178, 3 PX = 6 MX = -10, 6 MZ = 10, THE FG	FUUNDATION DI DD D DV 0.1010 -0.0029 0.1004 0.0071 0.1013 -0.0086	INDIVIDUAL 1 1 2 2 3 3 4 4 4 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
7HE # 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	F × × × × × × × × × × × × × × × × × × ×	THE FO 1 0.1 2 0.1 3 0.1 4 0.1	INDIVIDA PILE NO 1 2 2 3 3 3 4 4 4 4 4 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1

FIGURE E13-3.2 (Continued)

## 13-6 COMPUTER PROGRAM FOR PILE GROUPS

This computer program will compute the individual-pile forces and displacements of a pile group of any configuration and any number of piles. The pile-group loading can be general, but the cap must be rigid. The nonzero S-matrix entries are obtained separately by the user and read in separately for each pile.

It is not necessary that pile tops be at equal elevation (X, Y, Z coordinates are read for each pile). Piles may be of unequal length. These conditions require that the appropriate S-matrix entries be evaluated for the different conditions, and the user is expected to recognize and make the necessary changes. Note the sign convention of the P-matrix entries from Fig. 13-1. This program will solve either fps or metric units. The user must insert appropriate units into the input data. Use the TITLE to identify units.

Line	Operation
12	Bookkeeping operations
3	READ TITLE (note no UNIT card and no FU entries)
7	READ (415)
	N = number of piles in group; NP = number of nonzero values in P matrix $0 \le NP \le 6$ ; NLC = number of loading conditions so P matrix may be changed without reading additional pile data; LIST = IF > 0 will list A and $SA^T$ matrices of each pile
19-33	DO loop to read pile data
20	READ (6F10.2)
	C1(K) - C6(K)
21	READ (5Fi0.4)
	X(K), $Y(K)$ , $Z(K)$ = pile coordinates; $ALPHA(K)$ = angle of projection of pile with $X$ axis; $H(K)$ = pile batter as $H:1$ , read 100 for vertical piles
35	Begins loop to develop individual-pile $A$ , $SA^{T}$ , and pile contribution to foundation
	ASA <sup>T</sup> matrix. I is used as the counter varying from 1 to N (number of piles in group)
35-56	Compute pile-direction cosines
63-90	Zeros and builds individual-pile $A$ matrix
91-103	Zeros and builds pile S matrix
105-109	Builds individual-pile SA <sup>T</sup> matrix
115–118	Builds the foundation ASA <sup>T</sup> matrix using the contribution of one pile at a time
121-124	Zeros and read P matrix
130	Calls MINV standard single-precision matrix-inversion (IBM) subroutine
131-134	Computes foundation-displacement matrix XF(J) and write values
142–145	Computes individual-pile movements using $e = A^T X$ . Note A matrix is rebuilt for this operation along with the S matrix of next operation by setting $I = 1$ and INDEX = INDEX + 1
146-149	Computes pile forces using $F = Se$
152-161	Computes pile force and moment components in $X$ , $Y$ , $Z$ directions using $P = AF$
	and sums values to check problem statics
170	Checks if NLC is satisfied
0001	J E BOWLES 3-DIMENSIONAL PILE GRCUP ANALYSISFIXED OR PINNED HEAD ALL UNITS ARE FT (M), OR KIPS (KN)OUTPUT = FT.KIPS OR F-K (DR ME SLOPE BASEC ON H:1 WITH H = VERT AS 4:U: 12:L; FIZE (FPS OR METRIC) SIGNS **** +PX TO RT: +PY IS DCHN: +PZ DUT OF PAPER; +PMX.  ***********************************

```
DOUBLE PRECISION ALPMA, SLOPE, H, G1, G2, F1, F2, 81, 82, ALPMAR

1000 PREMATIZOAD, TITLE

1010 PREMATIZOAD, TITLE

1020 PREMATIZOAD, TITLE

1021 PREMATIZOAD, TITLE

1024 PREMATIZOAD, TITLE

1025 PREMATIZOAD, TITLE

1026 PREMATIZOAD, TITLE

1026 PREMATIZOAD, THE PREMATIZOAD, THE NOTADAY, TH
0002
0003
0004
0005
0006
0007
0008
0009
00112
0012
0013
0014
0015
0017
0018
0019
0021
0022
00223
0025
0025
        0027
0028
0029
0030
0031
0032
```

```
62 C(K,J) = 0

C(12,J) = C1(1)

C(12,J) = C1(1)

C(13,J) = C2(1)

C(13,J) = C2(1)

C(14,J) = C3(1)

C(14,J) = C3(1)

C(15,J) = C4(1)

C(16,J) = C3(1)

C(16,J) = C3(1)

C(16,J) = C4(1)

C(17,J) 
009956
00099789
0009970
000999
001001
001006
001006
001009
001112
0113
01115
01116
01117
01119
01122
011223
01125
01126
       0127
0128
       0129
           0130
   0131
0132
0133
0134
0135
0136
           0137
                                                                                                                                                 2; FH', 7x', MU', 7x', MV', 7x', MW', 1x', ALPHA W', ALPHA W', 1x', ALPHA W', 1x', Alpha W', Alpha W'
           0139
0140
0141
           0142
0143
0144
0145
           0146
0147
0148
0149
0150
0151
           015545
001556
01556
01557
00155
00166
00166
00166
00165
```

#### 13-7 GENERAL COMMENTS

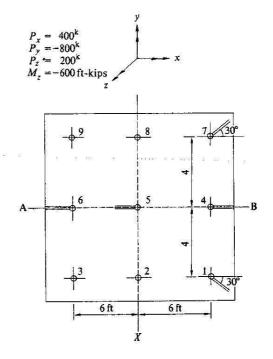
While this solution is quite flexible and general for a rigid pile cap, it could be easily extended to flexible pile caps as follows:

- 1 Revise the finite-element mat program of Chap. 7 to reduce the soil springs to zero.
- 2 Set up a pile-cap grid system so that pile heads intersect mat nodes as conveniently as possible.
- 3 Treat cap as rigid and solve for the pile forces on the foundation cap.
- 4 Treat the foundation cap as a flexible mat and compute the resulting displacements using the forces from step 3.
- 5 Modify the pile forces with the new displacements for 4 (lines 150 to 153 of this program) and recycle until convergence is achieved.
- 6 Final mat forces will provide a rational structural design of the pile cap.

#### **PROBLEMS**

13-1 Find the individual-pile forces of the group shown. All piles are 14BP74 at 50 ft, full head fixity.

$$k_s = 200 \text{ kcf} = \text{const}$$



All batters are 6:1.

E = 30,000 ksi

G = 12,000 ksi

 $\psi = 2.0$ 

Use Fig. 12-5 for load-transfer data to obtain constant A or C5(K).

13-2 Repeat Prob. 13-1 for 16-in-OD pipe (0.312 wall) piles filled with 3,000-psi concrete. Use  $k_s = 10 + 10Z^{0.5}$ .

13-3 Verify Examples 13-1 and 13-2.

13-4 Verify Example 13-3.

13-5 Repeat Prob. 13-1 for the forward row (piles 1, 2, 3) cast in a cap stepped along dashed line AB; change in elevation of +4.0 ft; repeat with -4.0 ft. Make pile 5 vertical. 13-6 What size H-piles should be used in Example 13-1 to limit  $\Delta X \leq 0.10$  in? Value now is 0.16 in.

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the state of the s

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# SLOPE STABILITY

#### 14-1 INTRODUCTION

The stability of earth masses against sliding, or gravity effects, is a serious problem. It must be routinely solved in most earthwork construction involving cut or fill, as in highways, railroads, dams, levees, and stockpiles. Slope stability is also a naturally occurring problem in hilly or mountainous areas (anyone who has ever driven through mountainous regions has seen raw slopes where masses of earth have slipped downhill). Stability failure of an embankment or slope occurs when an outer portion of the mass slides downward and outward with respect to the remainder of the mass, generally along a fairly well-defined slip surface (Fig. 14-1).

Stability analysis consists in (1) analyzing the forces causing and resisting stability failure and (2) determining the soil-strength properties. Methods of analysis include the assumption of the shape of the slip surface; the failure mass may be assumed circular, logarithmic spiral, sliding block, or wedges (Fig. 14-1). Field observations indicate that the failure surface is generally curved unless a definite weaker plane exists in the soil mass which can become a boundary condition. With the observation of curved slip failure surfaces, using either a circular or logarithmic spiral makes a

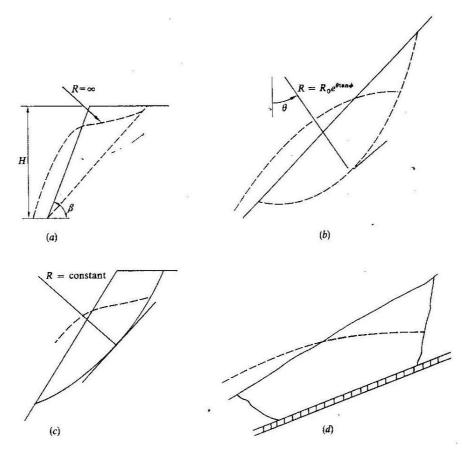


FIGURE 14-1 Typical slope-stability problems: (a) wedge failure when H and  $\beta$  are critical; (b) logarithmic spiral; (c) circular are failure; (d) wedge failure when internal conditions determine boundary conditions—weak soil system shown.

reasonable approximation for the failure surface. The circular method is actually more widely used due to easier computation.

Most analysis methods further subdivide the slip zone into slices (or finite elements) to evaluate the driving and resisting forces as the sum of the slice contributions. The use of slices also provides a convenient means of analysis when the soil properties vary within the slip zone.

The literature subdivides slope-stability analysis into the several methods. The limit-equilibrium method evaluates the overall stability of the sliding mass just on

the verge of slip, using some or all of the three equations of static equilibrium of a plane problem. The soil stress-strain relationships are not considered. This is the procedure believed to have been first proposed by Fellenius [Peterson (1955)], refined by Bishop (1955), and later used by Morgenstern and Price (1965), and is the one used in this chapter. The *finite-element* method seems in an early stage of development as reported by Whitman and Bailey (1967). A plasticity-theory method, suggested by Fang and Hirst (1970), has been shown to provide upper and lower bond values of the limit-equilibrium method.

#### 14-2 SAFETY OF SLOPES

Slope-stability analysis is used to evaluate the safety of existing or natural slopes and to design the slopes of embankments so that an adequate safety factor (SF) exists. Figure 14-2a illustrates the situation where a cohesionless mass is on a slope of  $\beta$ . An analysis of this mass indicates that

$$SF = \frac{\tan \phi}{\tan \beta} \tag{a}$$

and is independent of size of mass. If the soil is cohesive or has both angle of internal friction and cohesion and the mass is homogenous and isotropic, the conditions of Fig. 14-2b can be considered.

In Fig. 14-2b the weight of the sliding wedge of unit width is

$$W = \frac{1}{2}\gamma LH \frac{\sin(\beta - \rho)}{\sin\beta}$$

where  $A\overline{B} = L$ . The shear resistance due to cohesion is

$$C = cL$$

and solving the force polygon of Fig. 14-2b for equilibrium gives

$$\frac{\gamma H}{C} = \frac{2 \sin \alpha \cos \phi}{\sin (\alpha - \rho) \sin (\rho - \phi)}$$
(14-1)

In the literature [Taylor (1948), Fang and Hirst (1970), among others] the term  $\gamma H/C$  (or  $C/\gamma H$ ) is termed a stability number  $N_s$ .

To obtain the minimum value of  $N_s$  or  $N_{s,cr}$ , we can differentiate Eq. (14-1) and equate to zero as

$$\frac{dH}{d\rho} = 0$$

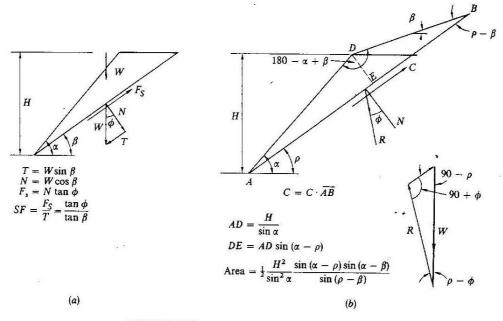


FIGURE 14-2 Slope stability with wedges used as failure zone: (a) cohesionless soil; (b) cohesive soil.

Solving, we obtain

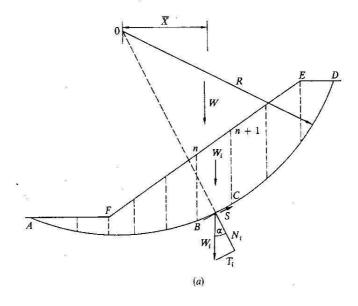
$$N_s = \frac{4\sin\beta\cos\phi}{1-\cos(\beta-\phi)} \tag{b}$$

With  $\beta = 90^{\circ}$ ,  $N_s = 4 \tan(45 + \phi/2)$ , and with  $\gamma H/C = 4 \tan(45 + \phi/2)$ , the critical height of slope is

$$H_c = \frac{4c \tan (45 + \phi/2)}{\gamma}$$
 (c)

which is the value widely used for the critical height of slope in vertical cuts. The actual height is reduced as  $H_c = H_{\rm cr}/{\rm SF}$ . One may prepare tables or charts for Eq. (14-1).

When the failure surface is taken as in Fig. 14-3, the stability requirement is that the sum of moments about the center of rotation be zero. Let us see how this might be.



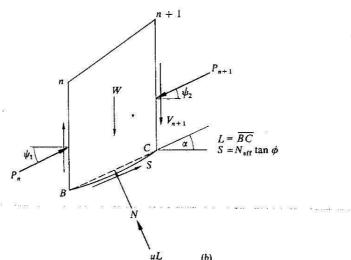


FIGURE 14-3
Resisting and driving forces in the circular slope failure for limit-equilibrium analysis: (a) circular sliding mass (mass has been subdivided into slices); (b) forces on a typical slice from (a).

From the figure it is evident that the cohesion resistance is at a constant distance R from the center of rotation. Thus,

$$C = c \times \text{arc length}$$

$$M_{\rm resist} = RC \tag{d}$$

The overturning moment can be computed as  $W\overline{X}$  or as the product of the radius R and the tangential component of W for the slice

$$SF = \frac{M_{\text{resist}}}{M_{\text{ot}}} = \frac{CR}{W\overline{X}} \tag{e}$$

When the circular mass is a homogenous purely cohesive soil ( $\phi=0$ ), it is often easier to cut the failure zone out of cardboard and hang it by a thread at two or more points to find the center of gravity; then compute the arc length of the slip surface and compute the safety factors as

$$SF = \frac{Rc \times arc length}{W\overline{X}}$$

For the more general cases of  $\phi$ -c soils, which may be stratified, it is often convenient to use slices and compute the shear and tangential component of the slice weight of each slice. The resisting moment is

$$M_r = \sum (RC + RS)$$

the driving moment is

$$M_d = \sum_{i} RT$$

and

$$SF = \frac{\sum (C + S)}{\sum T} \tag{f}$$

The presence of unbalanced water pressure on the sides of the slice can also be incorporated into Eq. (f) since magnitude, direction, and point of application can be computed. This method is used by the U.S. Corps of Engineers (1960), among others.

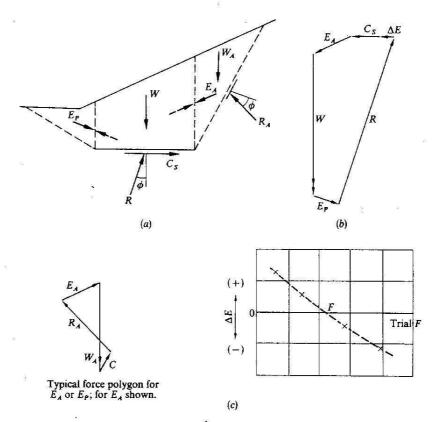


FIGURE 14-4

Trial-wedge solution (includes uplift pressure in forces as appropriate): (a) trial wedge; (b) force polygon of failure block; (c) plot of trial SF versus  $\Delta E$  to find value at  $\Delta E = 0$ .

The wedge method (Fig. 14-4) is in equilibrium (SF = 1) if the force polygon of Fig. 14-4b closes. The safety factor of the wedge could be defined as

$$SF = \frac{\sum F_r}{\sum F_d}$$

However, current opinion is that one should apply a safety factor to the soil strength parameters. If we do this and compute the amount of force  $\Delta E$  needed to close the force polygon (Fig. 14-4b), we can plot  $\Delta E$  versus a series of assumed safety factors. That value obtained graphically at  $\Delta E=0$  is taken as the safety factor. In this procedure it is evident that  $E_a$  and  $E_p$ , the active and passive pressure wedges acting on the main block, are the resultants of force polygons drawn for those zones and

include the effect of pore-water pressure. This method is also used by the U.S. Corps of Engineers (1960).

# 14-3 STABILITY ANALYSIS USING THE LIMIT-EQUILIBRIUM CONCEPT AND CIRCULAR SLIP SURFACES

The preceding section discussed the safety-factor concept. This section will proceed to the general solution of circular slip surfaces using the method of slices proposed by Bishop (1955).

Figure 14-3a is the general situation which occurs with  $\phi$ -c soils. Here the failure surface is taken as circular. One may debate the superiority of a circular or logarithmic spiral or perhaps several segments of circular arcs of varying radii, but with the large number of uncertainties involved, it appears not at all unreasonable to use a circular arc. If we subdivide the failure surface into a number of slices to better describe the soil properties and isolate a slice so that we can determine the body forces, we obtain Fig. 14-3b.

For use with Fig. 14-3b let us define the terms as follows:

 $P_n$ ,  $P_{n+1}$  = lateral pressures acting on sections n, n+1, respectively, due to adjacent slices inclined at angles  $\psi_1$ ,  $\psi_2$  as shown

 $V_n$ ,  $V_{n+1}$  = vertical shear forces including  $\phi$  effect and cohesion

W = weight of slice including effect of stratification

N =total normal force acting on base of slice

s = shear force acting on base

h = average height of slice

b =width of slice

L = length of slice over which shear force acts (length BC)

u = pore-water pressure

 $\alpha$  = angle between horizontal plane and BC.

 $\overline{X}$  = horizontal distance of center of slice to center of rotation

SF = safety factor

 $\overline{B}$  = factor relating effective stress to total stress

The average normal stress on the slice base is

$$\sigma_n = \frac{N}{L} \tag{g}$$

and the shear strength is

$$s = c + \sigma' \tan \phi \tag{14-2}$$

where c,  $\sigma'$ , and  $\phi$  are effective shear-strength parameters.

The amount of shear strength for limiting equilibrium, applying the safety factor SF to the strength parameters, is

$$s = \frac{1}{SF} \left[ c + \left( \frac{N}{L} - u \right) \tan \phi \right]$$
 (14-2a)

Note here that N/L - u is the effective normal pressure perpendicular to BC. In many cases one can obtain the effective pressure by using the submerged unit weight of soil as appropriate (the method is in the included computer program).

The sum of the moments of the soil mass within zone ABCDEF made up of n slices is obtained as follows:

$$S = Ls$$

and

$$\sum W\overline{X} = \sum SR = \sum SLR \tag{h}$$

where the terms W,  $\overline{X}$ , etc., are for each slice and the summation accounts for the contribution of all the slices to the mass. By inspection the terms  $\sum W\overline{X}$  are driving moments; the other terms represent resisting moments.

Substituting Eq. (14-2a) into Eq. (h) and solving for the safety factor gives

$$SF = \frac{R}{\sum W\overline{X}} \sum [cL + (N - uL) \tan \phi]$$
 (i)

The normal force on BC (Fig. 14-3b) is obtained as  $\sum F_p = 0$  on the slice to obtain

$$N = (W + V_n - V_{n+1}) \cos \alpha - (P_n \sin \psi_1 - P_{n+1} \sin \psi_2) \sin \alpha$$
 (j)

One can now obtain for SF

$$SF = \frac{R}{\sum W\overline{X}} \sum \{cL + (W\cos\alpha - uL)\tan\phi + [(V_{n+1} - V_n)\cos\alpha + (P_{n+1}\sin\psi_2 - P_n\sin\psi_1)\sin\alpha]\tan\phi\}.$$
(14-3)

With no external body forces on the slice  $(\sum F_v = \sum F_H = 0)$ 

$$\sum (V_n - V_{n+1} + P_n \sin \psi_1 - P_{n+1} \sin \psi_2) = 0$$

$$\sum (P_n \cos \psi_1 - P_n \cos \psi_2) = 0$$

It is at this point that small differences in the solution occur. Bishop (1955) and Spencer (1967) have shown that neglecting

$$\sum \left[ (V_{n+1} - V_n) \cos \alpha + (P_{n+1} \sin \psi_2 - P_n \sin \psi_1) \sin \alpha \right] \tan \phi \tag{k}$$

introduces very small to negligible errors. Whitman and Bailey (1967) and Morgenstern and Price (1965) considered assuming  $\psi_1 = \psi_2 = \psi$  then further assuming some reasonable variation of  $\psi$  from slice to slice including approximations for  $P_n$ ,  $P_{n+1}$ . Reasonableness included observing the resulting line of action of  $P_n$ ,  $P_{n+1}$  such that it remained inside the slip surface. It was considered unreasonable to compute tension in the soil, and so this fact could also be used to adjust  $\psi$ . In passing, note that more than one solution is possible with the assumption of  $\psi$  values. Whitman and Bailey (1967) showed (Table 14-1), however, that neglecting the P terms was not at all serious.

Other factors are probably much more serious if not correctly evaluated; for example,  $\phi$  and c, stratification, unit weight of soil, and determination of pore pressure. Finally with all the estimation to this point it appears a bit unreasonable to estimate the position of the lateral thrust line to compute a safety factor a few percent higher or lower.

There are several other comments one can make relative to  $V_n$ ,  $V_{n+1}$ ,  $P_n$ , and  $P_{n+1}$ . Bishop (1955) assumed horizontal P values, which made his derivations somewhat easier. In general, one would expect V = f(P) with rather indeterminate values of P and its point of application for stratified soils. The lateral pressures P would be approximately  $\frac{1}{2}\gamma H^2 K$ , where K is a lateral earth-pressure coefficient (not necessarily the active or passive value) with stratification taken into account. A P value for unbalanced waterhead where both magnitude and point of application can be determined seems to be the only disc where P can be found with any reliability. In this case V = 0. How serious would neglect of the cases other than water be? As other investigators cited herein have shown, it is not a large amount of error. The discrepancy can be reduced with the computer considerably, as it should be apparent that  $P_n$  and  $P_{n+1}$  should be equal and collinear if the slice is of a width  $dx \to 0$  since the average height would be the same as either the n or n + 1 sections. If these forces are equal and collinear, no moment results; also  $V_n$  and  $V_{n+1}$  would be equal and cancel. Thus one may conclude that thin slices should be used. This requires a large number of slices, but the computer can easily handle them.

The equation form actually used in the computer program is a rearrangement of

Table 14-1 COMPARISON OF SAFETY FACTORS

Example no.	Accurate	Simplified Bishop	Fellenius
1	1.58-1.62	1.61	1.49
2	1.24-1.26	1.33	1.09
3	0.73-0.78	0.70-0.82	0.66
4	2.01-2.03	2.00	1.14

SOURCE: Whitman and Bailey (1967).

Eq. (14-3) as proposed by Bishop (1955) to improve the accuracy of the computations by reducing the effect of the angle  $\alpha$  when the variation of  $\alpha$  is large from slice to slice. If N is resolved, and if  $L = b \sec \alpha$  and  $\overline{X} = R \sin \alpha$  are used, Eq. (14-3) becomes

$$SF = \frac{1}{\sum W \sin \alpha} \sum \left\{ [cb + W(1 - \overline{B}) \tan \phi] \frac{\sec \alpha}{1 + [(\tan \phi \tan \alpha)/SF]} \right\}$$
(14-4)

This expression omits all the vertical components from  $P_{n+1}$ ,  $P_n$  (and  $V_{n+1}$ ,  $V_n$ ) on the slice. The safety factor appears on both sides of Eq. (14-4); thus, the solution becomes an iterative process. Note that  $W(1 - \bar{B})$  is simply the effective pressure.

The author considered using a logarithmic spiral to define the failure surface. (The slip surface in the computer program is a circular arc.) According to Terzaghi (1943), a spiral could be of the general form

$$R = R_0 \exp(\theta \tan \phi) \tag{14-5}$$

where  $R = \text{instant radius at } \theta \text{ from } R_0$ , rad

 $R_0$  = radius at entrance point

 $\exp = e = \text{base of natural logarithms}$ 

This raised several points: (1) it is obvious that discontinuities should not exist in stratified soils; (2) what would one do about  $\tan \phi$  in these cases? Since the computer program should be able to accommodate two or more different soils in the failure arc, it was the author's opinion that for a dubious increase in computational precision the logarithmic spiral would add an inordinate amount of work and increase the size of the computer program an excessive amount.

#### 14-4 EXAMPLES

The following two examples taken from Bishop (1955) will illustrate the method. To conserve space the computer plots have information added and certain lines made heavier for convenience. Only partial input data will be given except as obtained from the computer output sheets.

EXAMPLE 14-1 This example uses Bishop (1955, fig. 3a) because this reference is readily available if additional information is desired. Given data are shown on Fig. E14-1.1. The author has converted the Bishop values to metric data, also shown on the figure.

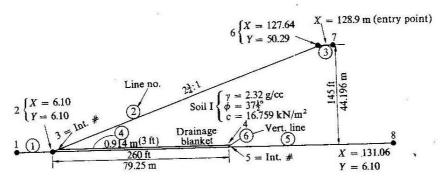


FIGURE E14-1.1 Slope dimensions and line and intersection numbering. Coordinates used in analysis also shown (not started with Y=0).

SOLUTION Due to the large amount of input only typical data cards are given.

Card	Data
1	TITLE
	UNITS (only M CM FU4 = 9.807)
2	NOT NIT NOS NOLE ITX ITY POUDE NO DIMEN LIST
	6 8 1 3 4 4 1 4 75 0
4	CX CY ENTY ENTY DELY DELY SWIDTH SCALE
	37.00 127.00 128.93 50.29 2. 2. 1.5 20.
5	2 (Number of line intersections on line 1)
6	1 2 00 6.10 6.10 6.10 1 2
•	C(I, I) = 1, 6 and line intersect numbers
7	3 (Number of line intersections on line 2)
8	2. 3. 6.10 6.10 127.64 50.29 2 3 6
17	0.0 6.10 (X,Y coordinates of intersection 1)
17	6.10 6.10 (X,Y coordinates of intersection 2)
18	0.10 0.10 (A,1 coordinates of 1200
25	5 22.8 37.5 16.8 1.
4	(5 = number of soil lines defining soil 1)
26	2 3 6 (line number; left and right line end intersection numbers)
27	3 6 7
28	4 3 4
29	5 5 8
30	6 4 5

These 30 cards make up the input for Prob. 14-1. The input uses metric units, and Fig. E14-1.2 illustrates computer printout of the input as well as some of the intermediate computation steps and printout checks. The plot of point 1 at a scale of 1 cm = 20 m is on Fig. 14-5a. Center coordinates of X = 37.00 and Y = 127.00 and entrance coordinates of X = 128.93 and Y = 50.29 m are shown on the computer

```
J E BOWLES EXAMPLE 14-1 BISHOP (1955) FIG 3A USING METRIC UNITS
 NO OF LINES = 6
                             NO OF LINE INTERSECT = 8
 NO OF SOILS = 1
                           NO OF EXTERNAL SOIL LINES = 3
 NO OF X-INCREMENTS = 1 NO OF Y-INCREMENTS = 1
        INITIAL SLICE WIDTH = 1.5 M
THE LINE END CCCRD MATRIX
LINE NG NO INT 1
2 0 0
3 2 6 10
3 2 127.64
4 2 8 61
6 2 85.34
                                                                                      LINE INTER NO
LINE INTERSECT ARRAY
SOIL DATA ARRAY
SOIL NO LINE * LEFT INT
1 2. 6.
1 3. 6.
1 5. 5.
                                     RT. INT
  XXX LINE 1 NOT INTERSECTED BY TRIAL CIRCLE
  XXX LINE 4 NOT INTERSECTED BY TRIAL CIRCLE
  XXX LINE 5 NOT INTERSECTED BY TRIAL CIRCLE
  XXX LINE 6 NOT INTERSECTED BY TRIAL CIRCLE
ARC INTERSECT WITH LINE ARRAY
                14.948
128.930
                                   9.32
                      ALL INTERSECTIONS FOLLOWS:

0.0 6.100 K = 1

6.100 6.100 K = 1

8.611 7.010 K = 1

4.948 3.317
  THE ARRAY WITH
  THE APPLICABLE ARRAY ARCINT FOLLOWS: I = 1 14.948 9.317 K = 1 2 127.640 50.290 K = 1 2 3 128.930 50.290 K =
  FIND SLICE WIDTH AND NO. OF SLICES
  ***** PAXIMUM SLICE WIDTH HAS BEEN INCREMENTED TO 2.00 FG 1.38546 FI 1.48542 FG 1.48453
                  THE SAFETY FACTOR FOR POINT 1 IS
                                                                    1.48453
                    FIGURE E14-1.2
```

I/O for Example 14-1 using metric units.

plot. The safety factor for this set of coordinates was 1.484 (also shown on the computer plot).

EXAMPLE 14-2 This example is taken from Bishop (1955, fig. 4). Soil lines, numbering, etc., are shown in Fig. E14-2.1. Note in this example that lines 5 and 6

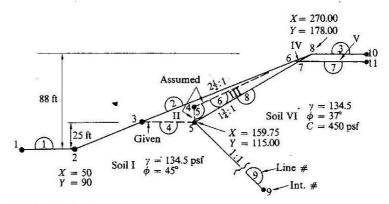


FIGURE E14-2.1 Slope with intersection, soil, and line numbers. Critical dimensions and coordinates given. Refer to Fig. E14-2.2 for remaining coordinates and soil data.

were not given by Bishop. Line 6 was approximated to be that shown by Bishop as the piezometric head. To use effective weights this became a "soil" line. Line 5 was used to close the soil area. Figure E14-2.2 (page 468) is a partial computer listing of input. All plots give data for checking. Note that slice lines occur at all line intersections. Figure 14-5b (page 470) also shows one of the plots of this problem (point 1, with center coordinates of X = 150.0, Y = 200.0, entrance coordinates of X = 275.00, Y = 178.00). The safety factor was 2.072.

#### 14-5 THE COMPUTER PROGRAM

This computer program was developed using Bishop's (1955) simplified procedure. With some modification it could be made to include the lateral-pressure forces of Morgenstern and Price (1965) or Whitman and Bailey (1967). The program uses a circular-arc failure surface. It may be possible with some modification to solve a logarithmic spiral, as the major change involved is computing the line intersection for a spiral rather than a circle; however, as the program allows for different soils ( $\phi$ 

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```
J E BOWLES EXAMPLE 14-2 SLOPE STABILITY US UNITS FROM BISHOP (1955) FIG 4
                                      NO OF LINE INTERSECT = 11
  NO OF SOILS = 6
                                  NO OF EXTERNAL SOIL LINES = 3
  NO OF X-INCREMENTS = 1 NO OF Y-INCREMENTS = 1
           INITIAL SLICE WICTH = 3.0 FT
THE LINE END COORD MATRIX

LINE NO NO INT X1

2. 4. 50.00

3. 2. 270.00 II

4. 2. 112.50 II

5. 2. 159.75 II

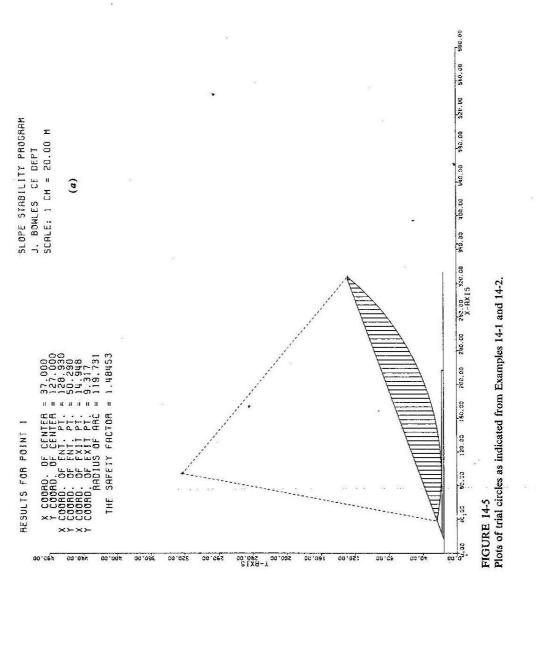
6. 2. 159.75 II

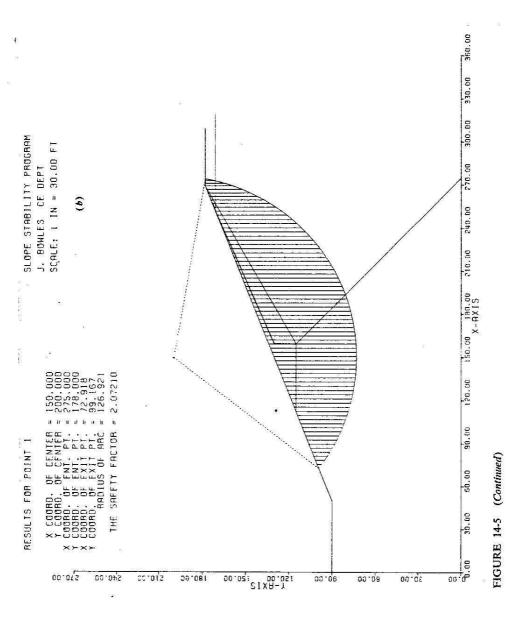
7. 3. 252.50 II

8. 3. 159.75 II

9. 2. 159.75 II
                                                                                                                 LINE INTER NO 1 2 3 8 10 3 5 5 5 5
                                                                                                SLCPE
      10
SOIL DATA ARRAY
SOIL NO LINE # LEFT INT
                                                 RT.235559655665566775888678801485179
                                                                   TRIAL CIRCLE NO = 1
CIRCLE CTR COORDS: X = 150.00 Y = 200.00
ENTRANCE PT. COORDS: X = 275.00 Y = 178.00
TRIAL ARC RADIUS = 126.921
```

FIGURE E14-2.2 Partial I/O for Example 14-2.





angles) to be intersected by the failure arc, the use of a logarithmic spiral may be too academic. Once the intersection coordinates are found, the areas, angles, etc., use coordinates for the computations.

The program will solve any slope-stability problem where the ground surface can be described by a series of straight lines. Any number of soil lines and soil types can be used (a very large number may require changing the DIMENSION statement). This large number of soils allows for describing the pore pressure by use of saturated-soil unit weights (note this was done in Example 14-2). The program computes both the total and the effective slice weights; thus the  $\overline{B}$  used by Bishop (1955) is not used in this program.

It is necessary in using this program to:

- I Number all line intersections in increasing X coordinates from left to right.
- 2 Number the upper external (closest to arc center) soil lines first in order from left to right. Interior soil lines may be numbered in any order.
- 3 The different soils in the mass may be numbered in any order.
- 4 Compute all line intersections accurately to 0.005 so that SMLNO = 0.01 will properly test coordinates.

The program locates all line intersections *inside* the trial arc including those lines intersecting the arc. A slice is located on every intersection point. Distances between intersection points are divided according to the slice-width specification (SWIDTH).

This program uses the CALCOMP plotter and standard plot subroutines to plot any or all of the trial circles using the call PCODE and NP on the third data card. For users using other plotters the plot routines/instructions in this program are easily removed as they are all grouped at the end.

The iterative procedure for the safety factor uses the equation proposed by Little and Price (1958).

This program will compute in either metric or fps units. The plot routines will plot the scale on 2-cm ticks. This can be changed (line 355). Use meters and kilonewtons or feet and pounds. The unit card contains three entries:

M	CM	9.807	
FT	IN	62.5	 $H_2O$

The user is advised to plot (if that capability exists) the first trial circle and obtain a full listing of input and output if any of the internal soil lines intersect to form odd geometric shapes. The author has run many problems, and they have all been found to work (Example 14-2 contains an unusual intersection pattern); however, it is possible that not all cases have been covered. In the worst possible case it is expected

that not over one or two slice weights would be in error, but the user should check. Again especially note step 4 above.

Line	Operation
1–5	Bookkeeping
6	READ TITLE and work units (two cards)
10	READ (1515)
	NOL = total number of soil lines; NLIT = total number of line intersections (the end of any line whether or not intersected by another line is a line intersection); NOS = number of soils in mass (same soil submerged is counted twice); NOLE = number of
0	top external soil lines; ITX,ITY = number of circle center points in X, Y directions to be analyzed for a single entrance point; PCODE = plot subroutine used if > 0; NP = plot control counter (if two plots, every other point, three plots, third point, etc.); DIMEN = control number of slices as 75, 80, 90, etc.; LIST = control to obtain extra output (after test run use 0 to conserve paper)
12	READ (8F10.3) CX,CY = initial trial-circle center coordinates; ENTX, ENTY = trial-circle entrance
8	coordinates; DELX,DELY = center X, Y coordinate increments for each trial; SWIDTH = initial slice width (DIMEN may increase value); SCALE = plotting scale as 20, 30 for 1 in = 20 ft, 1 in = 30 ft, etc.
22-51	READ problem data on line intersections, soils, etc., and forms arrays for later use; also writes data for checking
. 22	READ NLI = number of line intersections of each line in turn one entry per card
23	READ $(C(I,J), (NOLIT(I,N), N = 1,NLI) C(I,J) = line data including line number,$
23	number of line intersections for the lines, the $X$ , $Y$ coordinates of the end points left to
20	right (six entries); NOLIT(I,N) = all the line intersection numbers on the <i>i</i> th line including the end values (NLI entries)
25	Gives vertical lines the slope value of BIGNO so computer does not divide by 0.0
33–34	TO SENSO SE TRANSPORTE DE LA CONTRACTOR
JJ-J <b>4</b>	READ INTAR(J,K) INTAR(J,K) = line intersection $X$ , $Y$ coordinates in increasing intersection numbers
40	READ Soil data on DO loop
	NSLIN(I) = number of soil lines defining the boundary of the soil. Include lines terminating at a joint. If a line intersects a soil-line boundary between the ends, count the soil boundary line twice; $G(I) = \text{unit}$ weight either saturated or wet; $PHI(I) = \phi$ angle; $COHES(I) = \text{cohesion}$ ; $SAT = 1$ , if saturated, 0, if wet
43	READ LINSOL = soil line number; INTL,INTR = intersection number on left and right
	end of line (if a soil line terminates at a joint on a soil boundary, that line is included; the joint number is used for both INTL and INTR)
51	
58–121	Computes trial circle, line intersections; finds lines not used LNU(I), those in circle but not intersected by circle
122–174	Sets up arc-intersection array ARCINT
177–195	Finds slice width and checks total number of slices against DIMEN and increments slice width if necessary
197–251	Finds coordinates of all lines intersecting slices in slice array SLIC(I,J,K). Note that lines not intersected in a slice are given same coordinates as last line intersected and stacked at a point. This is so a routine for both coordinate test and area computations can be used using all lines. SLIC array is sorted for decreasing Y coordinates
254–314	Computes areas of slice parts and weights, both effective and total; sums slice weights; finds $\phi$ and $c$ for soil touching arc surface
315-341	Computes safety factor
342	Tests PCODE and NP for plotting
342-402	PLOT ROUTINE Also note that statement numbers 15, 402, and IBUF(1000) in DIMENSION statement relate to the plot routine
	W-10-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1-1

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C READ TOP INTERSECTION OF VERTICAL LINE FIRST THEN OTHER END
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                                                                                                       SOIL([,K,3]=INTR

SOIL([,K,4] = SAT(I)

50 HRITE(3,2009); (SOIL([,K,MM),MM=1,4),G(I),PHI(I),COHES(I)

2009 FORMATITE,13,6X,F3.0,7X,F3.0,6X,F3.0,6X,F2.0,5X,F6.1,3X,F4.1,3X,F7

PODUM = 0.

SEGIN LOOP TO TEST TRIAL CIRCLES

100 DO 360 [Y=1,ITY

DO 360 [Y=1,ITY

PCOUM = PCOUM + 1.

NCDUM = PCOUM + 1.

NCDUM = PCOUM + 1.

SWIDTH = WHOLD
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60 SLIC(I,N,2) = NOLPI
SORT SLICE ARRAY IN DECREASING ORDER.

IFLIST,NE.OIWRITE(3,2116)

PROMOTION SLICE #',2X,'X-CCCRC',4(2X,'LINE NO',2X,'Y-COORD'))

MCDUN-N
N-HCOUN-N
ON SLIC(X,X,Y,1),LE.-9.50)GC TC 82
IFLIST(KZ,KY,1),LE.-9.50)GC TC 82
IFLIST(KZ,KY,1)+SMLND).GE.SLIC(KZ,KY+1,1))GO TO 85

SAVE-SLIC(KZ,KY,1)+SMLND).GE.SLIC(KZ,KY+1,1))GO TO 85

SAVE-SLIC(KZ,KY,1)+SLIC(KZ,KY+1,1)
SLIC(KZ,KY,1)=SAVE
SAVE-SLIC(KZ,KY,2)=SAVE
SAVE-SLIC(KZ,KY,2)=SAVE
SLIC(KZ,KY,2)=SLIC(KZ,KY+1,2)
SCIC(KZ,KY,1)=SLIC(KZ,KY-1,2)

81 SLIC(KZ,KY,2)=SLIC(KZ,KY-1,2)
82 SLIC(KZ,KY,2)=SLIC(KZ,KY-1,2)
83 IFKNUM,NE.NNGD TO 84
81 IFLIST.NE.OIMRITE(3,3)KZ,SLICX(KZ),((SLIC(KZ,KY,2),SLIC(KZ,KY,1),

1KY-1,KGDUN)
SANEA-0.0
WEIGHT-0.0
EFMI = 0.
ISOIL=0
NN-HCDUN-N
ON 30 J=1.NN
OA=(SLIC(I,J,1)+SLIC((I+1,J,1)-SLIC(I,J+1,1)-SLIC(I+1,J+1,1))*

A(SLICX(I+1)-SLICX(I))/2.0
IF OAALIT(I,J-1)-SLIC(I+1,J,1)-SLIC(I,J+1,1)-SLIC(I+1,J+1,1)

A(SLICX(I+1)-SLICX(I))/2.0
IF OAALIT(I) II, NOSPI TO 308
IF(ISOIL-E,SMLND)GO TO 303
IF(ISOIL-E,SMLND)GO TO 305
N-NSLIN(II)
ICOUNT=0
JCOUNT=0
                                                                                                                               c <sup>60</sup>
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02271
                                                                                                                                                                N=NSLIN(II)
ICOUNT=0
JCOUNT=0
311 DO 304 JJ=1,N
IF(JCOUNT-EQ.2)GO TO 305
INTL=SOIL(II,JJ,2)
INTR=SOIL(II,JJ,3)
IF(ICOUNT-EQ.1) GO TO 310
IF(SLIC(II,J,2).NE.SOIL(II,JJ,1))GO TO 304
ICOUNT=IJSOIL=II
                                                                                                                                                                INTR=SDIL([I,J],3),
IFICOUNT.EQ.1) GO TO 310
IFISE(C(I,J,2).NE.SDIL(II,JJ,1)) GO TO 304
ICOUNT=1
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L(ALPHA(K))

OD 364 KS = 1,NSML

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L(ALPHA(K))

OD 364 KS = 1,NSML

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OD 364 KS = 1,NSML

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OD 367 KS = 1,NSML

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OD 368 MS = 1,NSM
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#### **PROBLEMS**

- 14-1 Verify the output of Example 14-1. Use ITX = ITY = 4, DELX = DELY = 10. and search for a lower SF.
- 14-2 Repeat Prob. 14-1 for Example 14-2 using DELX = DELY = 5.0.
- 14-3 Change the entrance coordinates to any point on the slope of Example 14-1 and see if a lower SF can be found. Use same initial center coordinates as in Example 14-1.
- 14-4 Repeat Prob. 14-3 for Example 14-2.

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# APPENDIX A

### DATA ON PILE-DRIVING EQUIPMENT

Table A-1 REPRESENTATIVE PILE-HAMMER (PILE-DRIVER) DATA<sup>a</sup>

Manufacturer	Total weight of hammer, lb	Weight of ram, lb	Length of stroke, in	Strokes per minute	Energy per blow (manufacturer's rating), ft-lb
		Single-act	ing hammers		<del></del>
McKiernan-Ter	гу Согр.			1-10-1	
S5	12,460	5,000	39	60	16,250
S8	18,300	8,000	39	55	26,000
S10	22,380	10,000	39	55	32,500
S14	31,700	14,000	32	60	37,500
S20	38,650	20,000	36	60	60,000
Vulcan Iron Wo	orks <sup>b</sup>				
2	6,700	3,000	29	70	7,260
1	9,700	5,000	36	60	15,000
06	11,200	6,500	36	60	19,500
08	16,750	8,000	39	50	26,000
010	18,750	10,000	39	50	32,500
014	27,500	14,000	36	60	42,000
016	30,250	16,250	36	60	48,750
020	41,670	20,000	36	60	60,000
Raymond Conc	rete Pile Division	Raymond Int	ernational, Inc.		a succession, and a
1 '	11,000	5,000	36	60	15,000
1S	12,500	6,500	36	58	19,500
0	16,100	7,500	39	52	24,375
2/0	18,550	10,000	39	50	32,500
3/0	21,225	12,500	39	48	40,625
4/0	23,800	15,000	39	46	48,758
5/0	26,450	17,500	39	44	56,875
22X	31,750	22,050	31	58	56,900
30X	52,000	30,000	30	70	75,000
8/0	34,000	25,000	39	40	81,250
40X	62,000	40,000	39	64	100,000

 $<sup>^{\</sup>rm c}$  Consult manufacturer's catalogs for additional data and models later than 1973.  $^{\rm b}$  All with standard bases.

Table A-1 REPRESENTATIVE PILE-HAMMER (PILE-DRIVER) DATA (Continued)

Manufacturer	Total weight of hammer, lb	Weight of ram, lb	Length of stroke, in	Strokes per minute	Energy per blow (manufacturer's rating), ft-lb
W - 200	<del>orania</del> i rodi.	Single-ac	ting hammers		
British Steel Pil	ing Co., Ltd.			<del>- 2</del> - <del>- 1</del> 1 1 1 1 1	ACCURACY S. O. S.
4b	4,595	3,360	54°		ď
5b	5,820	4,480	54		
6b	7,060	5,600	54		
7b	7,840	6,720	54		
9b	10,080	8,960	54		
9c	10,870	8,960	72	18	
10b	13,100	11,200	54	98	
100 10c	13,220	11,200	72	80	
106 12b	15,456	13,440	54		
			72		(6)
12c	15,904	13,440	12		
e e	Ø	Double-a	cting hammers		
McKiernan-Ter	пу Сого.		20		
No. 6	2,900	400	8 <del>3</del>	275	2,500
No. 7	5,000	800	91/2	225	4,150
9B3	7,000	1,600	172	145	8,750
10B3	10,850	3,000	19	105	13,100
11B3	14,000	5,000	19	95	19,150
C5	11,880	5,000	18	100-110	16,000
C826	17,750	8,000	18	85–95	24,000
Vulcan Iron W	orke Inc				
18C	4,139	1,800	• 10.5	150	3,600
30C	7,036	3,000	12.5	133	
50C			12.5	120	7,260
	11,782	5,000	27.70.70.70.70.00	V-7-0-0/07	15,100
65C	14,886	6,500	15.5	117	19,200
80C	17,885	8,000	16.5	111	24,450
140C	27,984	14,000	15.5	103	36,000
200C	39,050	20,000	15.5	98	50,200
400C	83,000	40,000	16.5	100	113,488
	orks of New Jerse			0.5	*****
00	21,000	6,000	36	85	54,900
0A	17,000	5,000	21	90	22,050
1.	10,500	1,850	21	130	13,100
1A	10,500	1,600	18	120	10,020
$1\frac{1}{2}A$	9,200	1,500	18	125	8,680
2	6,600	1,025	16	145	5,755
3	5,200	820	$13\frac{1}{2}$	150	4,390
3 <b>A</b>	4,700	700	14	160	3,660
4	2,800	370	12	200	2,100
5	1,625	210	9	250	1,010

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Maximum strokes given; operator can control stroke.
<sup>d</sup> Not rated.

Table A-1 REPRESENTATIVE PILE-HAMMER (PILE-DRIVER) DATA (Continued)

Manufacturer	Total weight of hammer, lb	Weight of ram, lb	Length of stroke, in	Strokes per minute	Energy per bi (manufacture rating), ft-lb	
		Double-a	cting hammers			1800
Raymond Conc	rete Pile Division	, Raymond In	ternational, Inc			
65C	14,675	6,500	16	100	19,500	
65CH	14,615	6,500	16	130	19,500	
80CH	17,782	8,000	$16\frac{1}{2}$	130	24,450	
150C	32,500	15,000	18	100	48,750	
	alee8e ur	Diese	l hammers			100 Ed. 1
McKiernan-Ter	ту Согр.					- 9.00
DE10	3,100	1,100	108°	48	. 6,600°	9,900
DE20	5,375	2,000	113	48	12,000 1	3,800
DE30	8,125	2,800	129	48	16,800 3	0,100
DE40	9,825	4,000	129	48	24,000 4	3,000
IDH-J22 <sup>h</sup>	10,800	4,850	120'	48	39,100 4	8,500
Link-Belt						
105	3,885	1,445	35.23	90-98	6,500	
180	4,550	1,725	37.60	90-95	8,100	
312	10,375	3,857	30.89	100-105	15,000	
520	12,545	5,070	43.17	8084	26,300	
Delmag Maschi	inenfabrik (The F	oundation Equ	ipment Corp.)			
D5	2,401	1,100	- 1	42-60	9,100	
D12	5,440	2,750		4260	22,600	
D22	10,054	4,850		4260	39,800	
D30	12,320	6,600		39-60	23,870-54,2	00
D44	19,842	8,819		40-60	72,300	

<sup>&</sup>quot; Maximum stroke; stroke increases with increased driving resistance.

Based on 6-ft stroke.

Maximum striking energy.
 Manufactured by Ishikawajima-Harima Heavy Industries, Tokyo, Japan (McKiernan-Terry is United States distributor).

Maximum.

Not given.

Table A-2 WEIGHT OF DRIVE-CAP PACKAGE\*

		Helmet	Helmet gu	ide insert no.†	***	
Hammer stock no.	For model	nominal size, in	Slot F	Slot D	Hammer jaw no.	Drive-cap weight, lb
H-51	D-5	12 × 12	101732	(1755)	30290	991
H-52	15-000 E	$14 \times 14$	101732	180 2	30290	1,150
H-53		$16 \times 16$		(1740)	30290	1,630
H-57		$12 \times 12$	101748	(2425)	33901	991
H-58		$14 \times 14$	101748	,	33901	1,200
H-59		16 × 16	101732	(1746)	33901	1,600
H-54		18 × 18	101732		33901	1,820
H-121‡	D-12	12 × 12	101732	(1755)	5122	991
H-122	Maria Maria	$14 \times 14$	101732	A. 3. 2. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3. 3.	5122	1,150
H-123		16 × 16		(1740)	5122	1,630
H-128		$12 \times 12$	101748	(2425)	6502	991
H-129		$14 \times 14$	101748	Control Control	6502	1,200
H-120		$16 \times 16$	101732	(1746)	6502	1,600
H-124		$18 \times 18$	101732		6502	1,820
H-221	D-22 or	12 × 12	101748	(2425)	1787	991
H-222	D-30	$14 \times 14$	101748	X-10.15 (10.2)	1787	1,270
H-223‡	2,20	$16 \times 16$	101732	(1746)	1787	1,670
H-224		18 × 18	101732	**************************************	1787	1,820
H-227		16 × 16	101748		32348	1,680
H-228		18 × 18	101748		32348	1,870
H-229		$22 \times 22$	101732		32348	2,340
H-226		$24 \times 24$	101732		32348	2,500

SOURCE: The Foundation Equipment Corp.

<sup>\*</sup> The drive-cap package consists of helmet, helmet guide, two each split pins, wood cushion block, and anvil plate. The drive-cap package for U leads includes helmet-guide channel in lieu of helmet-guide insert

<sup>†</sup> Slots F and D refer to designation impressed into helmet casting to differentiate between the slots for helmet inserts.

<sup>‡</sup> Normally ordered with this model.

Table A-3 TYPICAL WEIGHTS OF ANVIL BLOCKS (PILE CAPS)

Hammer no.	Weight of anvil block, lb	Pile type
S5	1,575	H and small sheet
	1,660	Z-sheet
S8	1,780	H and small sheet
	1,765	Z-sheet
	2,350	18-24-in pipe
	2,890	18-24-in pipe
S14, S20	3,415	12-14-in H
D1 1, D=1	4,500	20-36-in pipe `
9B3	1,360	All H and sheet
/	1,130	All Z-sheet
	1,060	14-18-in pipe
10B3	1,765	All H
	1,710	14-18-in pipe
11B3	1,550	All H
	2,110	12-24-in pipe
C5, C826	1,340	All H
,	1,470	12-20-in pipe
	1,258	Z-sheet

SOURCE: McKiernan-Terry Corp.

## APPENDIX B

DESIGN DATA FOR H-PILES, PRECAST-CONCRETE PILES, AND STEEL SHEET PILING (REPRESENTATIVE)

Table B-1 U.S. STANDARD STEEL H-PILES WITH STANDARD AISI DESIGNATION\*

			Flange, in	ä	Section properties	perties			2000 - 0			
	4 ۲					Axis XX	*		Axis YY	1.0		Nomina
Designation	Area A, sq in	Depth d, in	Width $b_f$	Thickness	web thickness t <sub>w1</sub> in	/, in <sup>4</sup>	S, in <sup>3</sup>	r, in	1, in <sup>4</sup>	S, in³	r, in	weight per ft, lb
HP14 × 117	34.4	14.23	14.885	0.805	0.805	1,230	173	5.97	443	59.5	3.59	117
HP14 × 107	30.0	14.03	14.784	0.704	0.704	1,050	150	5.93	380	51.3	3.56	102
HP14 × 89	26.2	13.86	14.696	0.616	0,616	910	131	5.89	326	44.4	3.53	68
HP14 × 73	21.5	13.64	14.586	0.506	0.506	734	108	5.85	262	35.9	3.49	73
HP12 × 74	21.8	12.12	12.217	0.607	0,607	266	93.4	5.10	185	30.2	2.91	74
HP12 × 53	15.6	11.78	12.046	0.436	0.436	394	6.99	5.03	127	21.1	2.86	53
HP10 × 57	16.8	10.01	10.224	0.564	0.564	295	58.8	4.19	101	19.7	2.45	57
HP10 × 42	12.4	9.72	10.078	0,418	0,418	211	43.4	4.13	71.4	14.2	2.40	42
HP8 × 36	10.6	8.03	8.158	0.446	0.446	120	29.9	3.36	40.4	9.91	1.95	36

\* These pile dimensions represent standard British steel H-pile sections. Normal material specifications: ASTM A36, ASTM A572 grades 42 through 60 (HP 14 × 117 not available in grade 60).

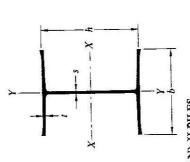


Table B-2 REPRESENTATIVE EUROPEAN (GERMAN) H-PILES

				cm		sd cm		Trägheitsmonnem (moment of iner	of inertial.	(section	ratestandsmonient	messer
ressumeen	(dimension	mm (sı	Gewicht	Abwick-		:	Uniriss	cm4		cm3		(minimun
p	S	-	(weight), kg/m	dung (metal)	Umriss (outline)	Stant (steel)	$b \times h$	J <sub>x</sub>	y,	$W_{\mathbf{x}}$	Ψy	l <sub>min</sub> , cm
,		:	70	001	134	133	980	22.410	8,720	1,470	545	8.5
	ΝO	25.0	110	224	154	142	1,340	35,040	14,290	2,000	748	10.0
	v.5	5.4	126	226	156	161	1,360	40,350	16,380	2,280	200	10.0
•	2.5	13.5	122	232	164	155	1,510	48,750	14,410	2,440	701	0,0
	15	15.5	140	234	166	179	1,540	56,290	10,650	2,75	200	0,0
	11	14.5	140	252	184	179	006,1	04,430	16,970	1,50	893	10
	25	16.5	156	425	186	200	0,220	127,500	15.140	4,250	797	8.
	7:	2.5	155	274	206	210	2,300	141,400	16,970	4,680	893	0.6
	7:	000	35	200	224	245	2,660	211,320	17,410	6,040	917	∞ 4
	14.5	2.5	215	304	251	273	2,900	363,800	11,360	8,080	705	6.5
		-										
450240000000000000000000000000000000000	222 322 383 383 380 380 380 380 380 380 380 380	B s s s s s s s s s s s s s s s s s s s	b b b b b b b b b b b b b b b b b b b	### Genylphi   Genylph		Gewicht (weight), kg/m 111 122 140 156 156 156 156 156 156	Gewicht Abwick- (Weight), fung (Weight), fung (Weight), fung (Weight) (Weig	Gewicht Abwick- Unriss (weight), fang (methal) (outline) (sgim 111 224 154 156 110 235 166 256 166 256 156 256 156 256 251 166 256 156 256 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 256 251 251 251 251 251 251 251 251 251 251	Gewicka Abwick- Umriss Stahl (burlies   Cweight), tang (cuttine) (steel)   Cweight), tang (cuttine) (steel)   Cweight)   Coutline) (steel)   Cweight)   Coutline) (steel)   Cweight)   Coutline)   C	Gewicht Abwick- Unriss Stahl (Junriss cm <sup>4</sup> (weight), lang (cutline) (steel) b × h J <sub>x</sub>   J	Gewicht Abwick- Unrits Staff (outline)   Gewicht Abwick- Unrits Staff (outline)   J <sub>x</sub> J <sub>y</sub>   J <sub>y</sub>   J <sub>x</sub>   J <sub>x</sub>   J <sub>x</sub>   J <sub>y</sub>   J <sub>x</sub>   J <sub>x</sub>	$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

source: Stahlwerke Peine-Salzgitter AG.

	<b>;</b> ;	iing re, psi																								ă.			I
	Approx.	collapsing pressure, psi	104	338	382	435	1,005	87	273	308	352	814	89	000	224	726	501	140	09	166	188	214	496	48	126	143	145	377	
	Concrete	per foot, cu yd	0.0192	0.0188	0.0187	0.0187	0.0182	0.0223	0.0218	0.0218	0.0217	0.0212	0.0079	7200	1,70.0	0.0273	7,70,0	0.0207	0.0316	0,0310	0.0310	0,0309	0.0303	0.0383	92500	37500	0.0375	0.0368	200
	Inside cross-	sectional area, sq/in	74.96	73.23	73.00	72.75	70.88	86.92	85.05	84.80	84.54	82.51	108 80	106.71	106.71	106.13	103.86	00.501	123.11	120.88	120.59	120.27	117.85	148 92	146 47	14615	145.80	143.13	
	Area of steel in cross	section,	3.571	5.306	5.531	5.780	7.657	3.842	5.711	5,954	6.221	8,246	4.293	988 9	6.658	6.958	9 2 2 8	077.7	4.564	6.791	7.080	7.399	9.817	5.016	7 466	7 785	8 136	10.799	
	Area of external	surface, sq ft/lin ft	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.61	2.81	2.81	2.81	2.81	2.81	3.14	3.14	3.14	3 14	3 14	t .	3.33	3,33	3.33	3.33	3.33	3.66	3 66	3.66	3.66	3.66	
8,4	Section	modulus, cu in	8.70	12.79	13.31	13.89	18.17	10,08	14.84	15.44	16.11	21.11	12.61	18.58	19.35	20.19	26.50	20.00	14.26	21.03	21.90	22.86	30.03	17.24	25.45	15 96	27.67	36,40	
PIPE PILES	Radius of	gyration, in	3.495	3,475	3.472	3,469	3,448	3.760	3.740	3,737	3.734	3.713	4.202 •	4.182	4.179	4.176	4.155		4.467	4.447	4.444	4.442	4.420	4.909	4.889	4.886	4.883	4.862	
STANDARD U.S. ROLLED-STEEL PIPE PILES	Moment	in <sup>4</sup>	43.54	63.97	66.39	69.46	90.89	54.23	79.76	83.04	86,64	113.51	75.68	111.51	116.11	121.17	159.05		90.93	134.09	139.64	145.75	191.48	120.68	178.17	185.57	193.72	254.84	
ROLL	n new se	ş			200	3	18			846		18					1				943	10	430				200		
D U.S.	Weight per foot	로 로	12.14	18.05	18.77	19.70	26.03	13.06	19.42	20.24	21,15	28.04	14.59	21.71	22,60	23.72	31,37		15.51	23.09	24.07	25.16	33.38	17.05	25.38	26.42	27.66	36.71	
	Wall	in in	0.115	0.172	0.179	0.188	0.250	0.115	0.172	0.179	0.188	0.250	0,155	0.172	0.179	0.188	0.250		0.115	0.172	0.179	0.188	0.230	0,115	0.172	0.179	0.188	0.250	
Table B-3	Size	OD, in	10					103					12						123					14					

19.50	180.70	5.616	22.58	4.18	5.738	195.32	0.0502	36
21.19	196.04	5.612	24.50	4.18	6.234	194.82	0.0501	43
22.79	210.57	5.609	26.32	4.18	6,703	194.35	0.0499	51
23.82	219.90	5.607	27.48	4.18	7.006	194.05	0.0499	99
26.40	243,24	5.601	30.40	4.18	7.764	193.29	0.0497	71
27.74	255.94	5.599	31.99	4.18	8.178	192.88	0.0496	29
29.06	267.20	5.596	33.40	4.18	8.546	192,51	0.0495	88
30.30	278,35	5.593	34.79	4.18	8.911	192.15	0.0494	96
31.66	290.63	5.590	36.32	4.18	9.314	191.74	0.0493	110
34.25	313.74	5.585	39.21	4.18	10.074	190.98	0.0491	139
36.87	337.08	5.580	42.13	4.18	10,845	190.21	0.0489	173
38.70	353.67	5.576	44,20	4.18	11.394	189.66	0.0487	200
42.05	382,98	5.569	47.87	4.18	12.370	188.69	0.0485	256
47.22	428.32	5.558	53.54	4.18	13.888	187.17	0.0481	360
52.36	473,11	5.547	59.13	4.18	15.401	185.66	0.0477	490
57.48	517.37	5.536	64.67	4.18	16.907	184.15	0.0473	199
62.48	562.08	5,526	70.26	4.18	18.408	182,65	0.0470	830

SOURCE: ARMCO Steel Corporation, Metal Products Division. All calculations based on wall thicknesses per manufacturer's standard gage tables. Sizes listed here are standard.

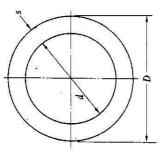


Table B-4 SPIRAL WELDED STEEL PIPE PILES (GERMAN)

Aussendurchmesser	esser notor) D	Wounddicke		Querschnitt (area)		77	Trägheits- moment	Wider- stands- moment	Trägheitshalb- messer
mm	in	(wall thick- ness) s, mm	(weight) G, kg/m	Stahl (steel) f, sq cm	Rohr (pipe) F, sq m	Omjang (perimeter) U, m	(moment or inertia) $J_{x_1}$ cm <sup>4</sup>	(section modulus)  W <sub>x</sub> , cu cm	(radius or gyration) $i_x$ , cm
323.8	123	10.0	77.4 97.4	99 124	0.082	1.02	12,150 15,040	750 929	11.11
355.6	14	10.0	85.2 107.4	109 137	660.0	1.12	16,220 20,140	912	12.2
406.4	16	10.0 12.7	97,8 123.3	125 157	0.130	1.28	24,480 30,470	1,210	14.0
457.2	18	10.0	110.3 139.2	140 177	0.164	1.44	35,140 43,840	1,540 1,920	15.8 15.7
508.0	20	10.0	122.8 155.1	156 198	0.203	1.60	48,520 60,640	1,910	17.6 17.5

	24	10.0	147.9 187.0	188	0,292	1.92	84,680 106,110	2,790 3,480	21.2 21.1
762.0	30	10 13 16	185.4 240.1 294.4	236 306 375	0.456	2.39	167,030 214,580 260,990	4,380 5,630 6,890	26.6 26.5 26.4
914.4	36	10 13 16	223.0 289.0 354.5	284 368 452	0.657	2.87	290,530 373,980 455,770	6,360 8,180 9,970	32.0 31.9 31.8
1,066.8	42	13	260.6 337.9 440.1	332 430 561	0.894	3.35	463,530 597,510 772,580	8,690 11,200 14,480	37.4 37.3 37.1
1,168.4	46	10 14 18	285.7 398.6 510.7	364 508 •651	1.072	3.67	610,480 845,900 1,076,430	10,450 14,480 18,430	41.0 40.8 40.7
1,219.2	84	10 14 18	298.2 416.1 533.2	380 530 679	1.167	3.83	694,360 962,550 1,225,390	11,390 15,790 20,100	42.8 42.6 42.5
1,320.8	52	12 15 18	387.3 483.0 578.3	493 615 737	1.370	4.15	1,056,620 1,311,780 1,563,410	16,000 19,860 23,670	46.3 46.2 46.1
,524.0	09	12 15 18	447.5 558.2 668.5	570 711 852	1.824	4.79	1,629,100 2,024,350 2,414,860	21,380 26,570 31,690	53.5 53.4 53.3
1,625.6	• 49	12 15 18	477.5 595.8 713.6	608 759 909	2.075	5.11	. 1,980,050 2,461,360 2,937,270	24,360 30,280 36,140	57.1 56.9 56.8

SOURCE: Stahlwerke Peine, Salzgitter AG.

#### 492 ANALYTICAL AND COMPUTER METHODS IN FOUNDATION ENGINEERING

Table B-5 UNION MONOTUBE PILES

		Diame	ter, in	Theoretic	cal weight	of steel,	lb		Y7-4 -	oncrete
Туре	Length, ft	Point	Тор	11 gage	9 gage	7 gage	5 gage	3 gage	vol, c	
F, taper,	25	81/2	12	338	421	502	591	711	0.43	
0.14 in/ft	30	8	12	388	484	579	681	820	0.55	
0.2 ( 10)12	40	81	14	595	748	900	1,059	1,275	0.95	
	60	8	16		1,213	1,465	1,733	2,093	1.68	≥
	75	8	18		*,	1,962	2,312	2,792	2.59	Extensions type N
J, taper,	17	8	12	225	279	332	390	468	0.32	rsions
0,25 in/ft	25	8	14	364	457	549	645	777	0.58	ĝ
	33	8	16		653	786	924	1,112	0.95	9
23	40	8	18			1,038	1,221	1,469	1.37	
Y, taper,	10	8	12	139	171	202	239	285	0.18	
0.40 in/ft	15	81	14	229	288	345	404	484	0.34	
	20	$8\frac{1}{2}$	16		412	494	579	696	0.56	1 111
¥ '	25	$8\frac{1}{2}$	18			663	778	934	0.86	
N12	20	12	12	317	398	478	558	668	0,51	-
21	25			394	495	593	694	831	0.64	
	30			471	589	708	829	993	0.77	11
	35			547	687	825	967	1,158	0.89	>
	40			625	784	942	1,100	1,317	1.02	J, 01
N14	20	14	14	392	490	587	689	823	0.70	Tapered section type F, J, or Y
N14	25			485	606	731	858	1,025	0.87	<b>2</b>
	30			581	727	877	1,023	1,222	1.05	. <u>G</u>
	35			679	849	1,018	1,194	1,427	1.22	38
	40	8		773	967	1,166	1,368	1,634	1.40	ered
N16	20	16	16		555	666	781	933	0.90	Tap
13,000,000,000,000	25	MONVE			687	829	971	1,161	1.13	
	30				824	988	1,158	1,384	1.35	1
	35				957	1,153	1,352	1,615	1.58	
	40				1,095	1,320	1,539	1,840	1.80	
N18	20	18	18	20 00 00 E)	r w <sub>ee</sub> re	755	. 880	1,052	1.16	
	25					934	1,095	1,308	1.45	
	30					1,119	1,311	1,566	1.75	8 in
	35					1,305	1,522	1,819	2.04	Std. Dia.
	40					1,486	1,741	2,081	2,33	LJ1a.

SOURCE: The Union Metal Manufacturing Co., Canton, Ohio.

Table B-6a RAYMOND STEP-TAPER CORES AND STEP-TAPER SHELLS

Section no.         OD, in         Average diam, in         Approximate weight, area, in         Section no.         Nominal Average weight, area, in         Section no.         OD, in         Approximate diam, in         Ib/lin ft         Section no.         OD, in         Approximate weight, area, sectional surface area, weight, area, sectional section sectional section sectional section sectional section sectional section sectional section	Step-taper cores	ores		7	Raymond step-taper shells	p-taper shel	S			
Nominal Average Weight, Section no. OD, a in 8-ft steps   12-ft steps   Ib/lin ft Average   Nominal Average   Ib/lin ft Aver				Approximate			Nominal su	rface area,	Approximate	Nominal
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Section no.	Nominal OD, in	Average diam, in	weight, Ib/lin ft	Section no.	OD,4 in	8-ft steps°	12-ft steps°	weignt, Ib/lin ft <sup>4</sup>	cross-sectional area, sq in
$8\frac{15}{16}$ 90     00 $9\frac{1}{2}$ 20     30     9 $9\frac{1}{16}$ 105     0 $10\frac{1}{3}$ 22     33     10 $10$ $120-20$ .1     114     24     36     11 $11\frac{1}{3}$ $120-20$ .2 $12\frac{1}{3}$ 26     39     12 $13\frac{1}{3}$ $135-16$ .4 $14\frac{1}{4}$ 30     .4     14 $14\frac{1}{3}$ $150-16$ .5 $15\frac{1}{4}$ 30     .4     14 $15\frac{1}{4}$ $160$ .6 $16\frac{1}{4}$ 34 $15$ 16 $16$ $200$ .7 $17\frac{1}{4}$ 36 $54$ $17$	000	×	7.7.2	75	000	20 20	18	27	8.5	58
91x   105         105         0         108   22   33   10           10   120-200   .         1         114   24   36   11           114   120-220   .         2         124   26   39   12           124   125-200   .         3         134   28   42   13           134   135-165   .         4   144   30   45   14           144   150-165   .         5   154   32   48   15           15   .         34   .         51   16           16   .         200   .         7   .           174   .         36   .         54   .	00	6	8 - S	8	00	36	20	30	6	71
10.5     120-200     11     24     36     11       11\$     120-220     2     12\$     26     39     12       12\$     125-200     3     13\$     28     42     13       13\$     135-165     4     14\$     30     45     14       14\$     150-165     5     15\$     32     48     15       15\$     16     6     16\$     34     51     16       16     200     7     17\$     36     54     17	0	10	0 3	105	0	103	22	33	10	85
11\$ 120-220     2     12\$ 26     39     12       12\$ 125-200     3     13\$ 28     42     13       13\$ 135-165     4     14\$ 30     45     14       14\$ 150-165     5     15\$ 32     48     15       15\$ 160     6     16\$ 34     51     16       16     200     7     17\$ 36     54     17	-	1	10	120-200		11.	24	36	1	100
121     125-200     3     134     28     42     13       134     135-165     4     144     30     45     14       144     150-165     5     154     32     48     15       154     160     6     164     34     51     16       16     200     7     174     36     54     17	7	12	114	120-220	7	124	26	39	12	118
13½     135–165     4     14½     30     45     14       14½     150–165     5     15½     32     48     15       15½     160     6     16½     34     51     16       16     200     7     17½     36     54     17	3	13	121	125-200	6	134	28	42	13	138
14½     150–165     5     15½     32     48     15       15½     160     6     16½     34     51     16       16     200     7     17½     36     54     17	4	14	131	135-165	4	141	30	45	14	160
154         160         6         164         34         51         16           16         200         7         174         36         54         17	S	15	141	150-165	'n	151	32	48	15	182
16 200 7 17‡ 36 54 17	9	16	154	160	9	164	34	51	16	208
	7	17	16	200	7	174	36	54	17	234

b Circumscribed area only; does not include full contact surface of corrugated section or projected end area due to taper. <sup>a</sup> Diameters shown are at bottom of shell section. Top diameter of shell section is  $\frac{1}{8}$  in larger.

\* Sections are available also in lengths of 4, 16, and 24 ft; check with manufacturer.

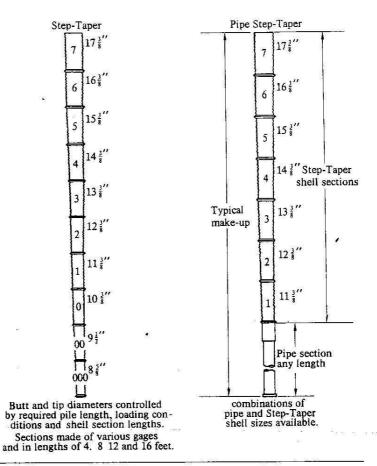
<sup>4</sup> Gages range from no, 12 to 20. Manufacturer assumes responsibility for selection of proper gages.

° Total area.

SOURCE: Raymond Concrete Pile Division, Raymond International, Inc.

Table B-66 RAYMOND STEP-TAPER PILE AND STEP-TAPER CORE ASSEMBLIES (FOR DRIVING)\*

Step-taper core and shell makeup



<sup>\*</sup> Also shown is the standard uniform taper pile available in 8-in size (shown) and 10.8 in.

<sup>†</sup> Weights include head, point, and pins but not shell.

Weights† of step-taper core

		8-ft steps		12-ft step	S	16-ft step	s
Point size	Top size	Length,	Weight, lb	Length,	Weight, lb	Length,	Weight, lb
000	3	48	10,500	72	14,500	96	18,000
	4	56	12,000	84	16,5Q0	112	21,000
	5	64	13,500	96	19,000	128	24,500
	6	72	15,000	108	22,000	144	28,500
	7	80	18,500	120	26,000	160	34,000
00-	3	40	9,500	60	13,000	80	16,000
••	4	48	11,000	72	15,000	96	19,000.
	. 5	56	12,500	84	17,500	112	22,500
	6	64	14,000	96	20,000	128	26,500
	7	72	17,500	108	24,500	144	32,000
0	3	32	8,500	48	11,000	64	14,000
•	4	40	10,000	60	13,500	80	17,000
	5	48	11,500	72	15,500	96	20,000
	5 6	56	13,000	84	18,500	112	24,000
	7	64	16,500	96	23,000	128	29,500
1	3	24	7,000	36	9,500	48	11,500
_	4	32	9,000	48	11,500	64	4,500
	4 5 6	40	10,500	60	14,000	80	17,500
	6	48	12,000	72	17,000	96	21,500
	7	56	15,500	84 .	21,000	112	27,000
2	3	16	5,500	24	7,000	32	8,500
_	4	24	7,000	36	9,500	48	11,500
	5	32	8,500	48	11,500	64	14,500
	5	40	10,500	60	14,500	80	18,500
	7	48	14,000	72	19,000	96	24,000
3	3.	8	4,000	12	5,000	16	5,000
	4	-16	5,500	24	7,000	32	8,500
	5	24	7,000	36	9,500	48	11,500
	6	32	8,500	48	12,500	64	15,500
	7	40	12,000	60	16,500	80	21,000

Table B-7 PRESTRESSED CONCRETE PIPE PILES

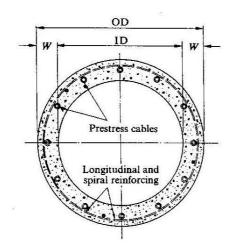
Size				
OD, in	ID, in	Wall thickness, in	Area, sq in	I, in <sup>4</sup>
24	16	4	251	13,070
34	26	4	377	43,170
36‡	28	4	402	52,280
20 10-51	27	41/2	445	56,360
	26	5	487	60,000
48	39	41/2	615	147,000
	38	5	675	158,200
	36.	5 6	792	178,100
54‡	45	4½	700	216,100
10.	44	5	770	233,400
	42	5 6	904	264,600
66	56	5	958	448,700
	54	6	1,131	514,000
72	62	5	1,052	593,800
\$ 8 B	60	6	1,244	683,000
78	67	51/2	1,253	827,800
	65	6 <del>1</del>	1,460	940,700
84	72	6	1,470	1,124,700
	70		1,693	1,265,300
90	78	6	1,583	1,403,600
	76	7	1,825	1,582,900

SOURCE: Raymond Concrete Pile Division, Raymond International,

<sup>\*</sup> Unit weight of concrete = 150 lb/cu ft.

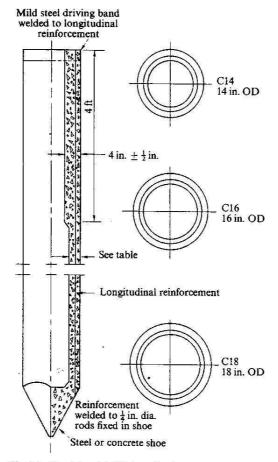
† Cable = 12 each 0.192-in-diam wire stress-relieved strands (140,000 lb/sq in stress).

‡ Standard sizes; other sizes available only in quantity.



S, in³	Circumference, in	Point area, sq ft	Weight per foot, lb*	Concrete design stress, per cable, lb/sq in†
1,089	6.28	3.14	261	193.8
2,540	8,90	6.30	393	129.0
2,900	9.43	7.07	419	121.0
3,130	9.43	7.07	464	109.3
3,330	9.43	7.07	507	99.9
6,130	12.57	12.57	641	79.1
6,590	12.57	12.57	703	72.0
7,420	12.57	12,57	· 825	61.4
8,000	14.14	15.90	729	69.5
8,640	14.14	15.90	802	63.2
9,800	14.14	15.90	942	53.7
13,600	17.28	23.76	998	50.8
15,580	17.28	23.76	1,178	43.0
16,500	18.85	28.27	1,096	46.2
18,970	18.85	28.27	1,296	39.1
21,230	20.42	33.18	1,305	38.8
24,120	20.42	33.18	1,521	33.3
26,780	21.99	38.48	1,531	33.1
30,130	21.99	38.48	1,764	28.7
31,190	23.56	44.18	1,649	30.7
35,180	23.56	44.18	1,901	26.6

Table B-8 PRECAST-CONCRETE PIPE PILES



SOURCE: ROCLA Concrete Piles, Ltd., Brisbane, Australia.

NOTES ON DRIVING: Always use helmet at least  $\frac{1}{2}$  in thick with ID at least  $\frac{1}{2}$  in larger than OD of pile with a 1-in-thick mild-steel diaphragm plate. Use a timber cap block above plate and at least 1-in pine board below diaphragm and in contact with pile (spring cushion). For piles longer than 30 ft the pile hammer should weigh more than 4,500 lb.

Dimension	s and loads	Thickness	Current	Maximum
Туре	Pile OD, in	of wall of barrel, in	maximum length, ft	working load, tons
		2	60	50
C14	14	2 <del>1</del>	60	60
mediana.	4.0	22	60	60
C16	16	21	60	70
		$\frac{2\frac{1}{2}}{2}$	60	80
	2020	3	40	70
C18	18	21	40	80
		2½ 3	40	90

# Approximate weight per pile, lb

	Outside	diameter					- 10 - 100	
	14 in Wall th	ickness, ir	16 in			18 in		
Pile length, ft	2	21/2	2	2 <del>1</del> /2	3	2	21/2	3
	2,080	2,400	2,415	2,815	3,120	2,830	3,210	3,610
20	2,540	2,960	2,940	3,465	3,865	3,445	3,945	4,470
25		3,520	3,465	4,115	4,610	4,060	4,680	5,330
30	3,000		3,990	4,765	5,355	4,675	5,415	6,190
35	3,460	4,080		5.415	6,100	5,290	6,150	7,050
40	3,920	4,640	4,515	A. C. S.	6,845	5,905	6,885	7,910
45	4,380	5,200	5,040	6,065	(C) To 1 (C) (C) (C) (C)	6,520	7,620	8,770
50	4,840	5,760	5,565	6,715	7,580	100 TO 10	8,355	9,630
55	5,300	6,320	6,090	7,365	8,335	7,135		10,490
60	5,760	6,880	6,615	8,015	9,080	7,750	9,090	10,450

Table B-9 STEEL SHEET PILING PRODUCED IN THE UNITED STATES\*

		70		38			0.00410.00	-	te ,		8				
					Surface		section properties	Iopellica							
98	Weight, lb				tj/tj bs		Axis XX						Axis YY		
		bs.	8	Driving	함		Single section	tion		Per linea	Per lineal foot of wall	wali	Sinole se	ction	
Designa- tion Profilet	Per foot	ft of wall	Area width, ing A, sq in in ter	width, in	sk ii	Coating areat	I, in4	S, cu in r, in	'.'  'ä	I, in4	S, cu in r, in	۲, in	I, in 4	S, cu in	I, in S. cu in Producers
PZ38 Ÿ	57.0	38.0	16.77	18	5.52	5.06	421.2	70.2	5.01	280.8	46.8	5.01	471.0	49.6	B,U
IZ in.	· *	W0 10 10		ä				18	89	9/	•				
PZ32	56.0	32.0	16.47	21	5.52	5.06	385.7	0.79	4.84	220.4	38.3	4.84	705.0	63.9	B,U
114 in.	×												8	3	
PZ27   PZ27   \$1.00	40.5	. 27.0	11.91	81	4.94	4.48	276.3	45.3	4.82	184.2 30.2	30.2	4.82	340.0	36.0	B,U
mi 21	×	¥0							55					e	201
PDA27 FIX	. 36.0 X	27.0	10.59	91	4.52	3.86	53.0	14.3	2.24	39.8	10.7	2.24	327.0	39.1	D eq
	\$ ×	× 2 2 2 2 2 2													8

PMA22 E		₩ 36.0 ₩ ₹ ₩ ₹.0	22.0	10.59	194	4.54	88. 88	22.4	· 80	1.57	13.7	5.4	1.57	486.0	47.9	D gg
PSA28¶	e iii	37.3 X	28.0	10.98	91	3.74	3.06	0.9	3.3	0.74	.5.	2.5	0.74	332.0	39.8	B,U,W
PSA23¶ X-	30. 30. X	30.7 -X	23.0	8.99	91	3.76	3.08	5.5	3.2	0.78	4.1	2.4	0.78	288.0	34.5	B,U,W
X - X	r * in.	40.0 X	32.0	11.76	15	3.66	2.82	3.6-	3.0	0.55-	3.7	1.9-	0.55-			B,U,W
PS28¶ X-\$ Y	ii.	35.0 X	28.0	10.29	21	3.70	2.86	4.6	3.0	0.58	3.7	2.4	0.58-			B,U,W
PWZ27	[ ] <b>]</b> .	36.0 X	27.0	10.59	. 91	4.33	3.90	92.1	25.3	2.97	70.1	19.0	2.57			*
PWZ22		29.3 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	22.0	8.62	91	3.73	3.30	42.4	14.8	2.22	, 31.7	11.0	1.97			<b>*</b>
	·															

Table B-9 (Continued)

( <b>94</b> )							č		Section 1	Section properties	8					
			Weight, lb	- <b>Q</b>			Surface area,	area,	Axis XX	8					Axis YY	
			1	Per sq		Driving	Includ-		Single section	ction	×	Per line	Per lineal foot of wall	wall	Sinola santion	
Designa- tion Profile†	·	*	foot	wall	A, sq in in terlock area‡ I, in4	in in	ing in- terlock	area‡	I, in4	S, cu in r, in	r, in	I, in4	S, cu in	r, in	I, in S, cu in Producers	Producer§
PSX35¶ X-\$	>>	in.	44.5	44.5 35.0 13.09 15‡ 3.74 2.84	13.09	· <b>‡</b> 51	3.74	2.84	5.2	5.2 3.3 0.63	0.63	14	4.1 2.6 0.63	0.63		pa pa
PSX32¶		2 :: # :: # :: # :: # :: # :: # :: # ::	44.0	44.0 32.0 12.94 16 <del>1</del>	12.94	<b>†</b> 91	3.88	3.88 3.10		3.3	5.1 3.3 0.63	3.7	3.7 2.4 0.63	0.63	8	p

SOURCE: AISI.

• Normal materal specifications: ASTM A328, ASTM A572 grades 42 through 55.

† Sections produced by different manufacturers may not interlock properly. Consult the manufacturer.

‡ Excludes bowl and ball of interlock. (Divide value by 2 for area on one side of pile.)

¶ These sections generally used in applications involving interlock strength rather than section modulus. Section properties shown for information purposes only. PSX designation refers to piling with high strength interlocks.

§ B, Bethlehem Steel Corporation; U, United States Steel Corporation; W, Weirton Steel Division of National Steel Corporation.

Trägeitshalb-messer (radius of gyration) r, cm 14,08 14,08 14,08 12.05 12.05 12.05 8.8.8. 8.5.8. Tragheitsmoment of
(moment of
inertia) I,
cm<sup>4</sup> 2,810 3,320 3,585 6,800 8,350 9,400 30,600 34,000 37,400 7,200 8,570 9,640 10,710 22,500 22,500 22,500 850 960 Wider-stands-moment+ (section modulus) S, i 2,800 2,200 2,200 1,200 155 190 213 375 444 478 680 835 940 600 714 804 894 Gewicht (weight), kg Per Per pile sq m+ 85 101 119 110 116 122 555 21 76 76 28 201 121 134 148 39.5 53.5 59.6 66.8 24.8 30.2 34.1 \$0.0 \$3.0 52.3 58.9 72.6 80.4 88.7 Stahlquer-schultt (steel area), sq cm/m 57.3 70.0 79.9 154.0 171.0 188.0 98.7 121.0 136.2 151.8 140.0 148.0 155.0 99.3 121.0 136.4 76.4 90.4 96.7 Unifangt (wall area) two sides, cm/m 295 2222 265 265 265 233 275 275 275 265 Table B-10 STEEL SHEET PILING PRODUCED IN EUROPE 5.5 6.0 5.5 6.5 9.0 9.0 9.0 8.0 9.0 0.0 9.0 d,\* h, mm 945 360 888 5055 888 999 2222 575 575 575 b, mm 550 550 555 550 550 550 Profile (section) K121Z K134Z K148Z K79U K95U K107U K119U K110U K116U K122U K78Z K95Z K107Z K45L K55L K62L K60S K71S K76S 0 Regular

8.26 8.26 8.26

80 80 80 4 4 4 4

6.0 6.0 6.0

source: Fried. Krupp Huttenwerke, AG, 4140 Rheinhauser.

\* Sections are constant thickness.
† For I m of wall width per meter of length.

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